

LONDON REVIEW

Politics, Society, Literature, Art, & Science.

No. 251.—VOL. X.]

SATURDAY, APRIL 22, 1865.

[PRICE 4*d.*
Stamped 6*d.*

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REVIEW OF POLITICS.

THE election at Rochdale is the single event which has ruffled the placid surface of English politics during the Easter recess. The electors of that borough have refused to stultify themselves and to insult the memory of their late illustrious representative by returning as his successor a man who would have opposed everything which Mr. Cobden would have supported. No one can feel any surprise that the attempt to elect a Tory representative for Rochdale should have failed; the only wonder is that it should have been made. It is true that there is a considerable difference between Mr. Cobden and Mr. Potter, and that sincere Liberals might, under ordinary circumstances, have shrunk from supporting a candidate who represents ultra-Liberalism under its most offensive and vulgar aspects. But insignificant as are Mr. Potter's abilities or political capacity, obvious as it is that he is a mere speaking-trumpet through which we hear the voice of the coarsest and least thoughtful section of the Lancashire Radicals, he was on this occasion preferable to a mere glib-tongued Conservative lawyer, who had nothing better to offer than a readiness to say "ditto" to Lord Derby. Mr. Brett was no doubt willing enough to admit the blessings of free-trade, and even to speak civilly of the Treaty of Commerce with France; but the Rochdale electors very properly required something more than mere readiness to recognise *faits accomplis*. As Mr. Bright forcibly put it, in the remarkable speech which he delivered during the contest, these measures had been carried in "spite of all the Mr. Bretts in the kingdom;" and it was certainly rather too much to ask that the place of the great man to whom we owe them should be filled by one who would assuredly, if he had been in Parliament, have done all in his power to defeat them. We should certainly have wished to see Mr. Cobden's place filled by a politician of a different stamp from Mr. Potter; but if the constituency were really driven to choose between two nonentities, they were right in preferring the one whose return would involve no reflection upon the career of their late member. Had they sent Mr. Brett to Parliament, we should have had the cry of a "Conservative reaction" dinned into our ears by every organ of the party. From that at least we have been delivered by the return of Mr. Potter, and we are so far grateful. But the return of such men is not likely to strengthen the Liberal party, either in the House of Commons or the country. Wealthy manufacturers, who spend their money lavishly for party purposes, and take unhesitatingly any pledges that are offered to them, are no doubt in more senses than one very convenient candidates. But they are utterly without weight in the Legislature, and are useless, except

for the purposes of a division. It is idle for the middle classes to think of meeting the aristocracy upon equal terms, until they send to Parliament men young enough and with ability enough to master the work of Parliament and of administration. Mere middle-aged commercial respectabilities with large fortunes cannot hold their own against men who have had the advantage of the highest culture and have been trained in the House of Commons from an early age. If the Liberal party is to make progress, it must really, as well as nominally, abandon the idea of a property-qualification for members. The Whigs have been much and deservedly blamed for their subservience to the great families; but the Radicals are still more open to censure for their worship of the great fortunes.

The debate in the Corps Législatif upon the paragraph in the address relating to the September convention between France and Italy was signalized by a remarkable speech from M. Thiers. Distinguished as it was by the rhetorical power and the debating skill which characterise the leader of the Orleanist party, it was still more distinguished by the narrowness of view and the obsoleteness of ideas, which this statesman so often manifests. Unfortunate as the Emperor Napoleon often is in his friends, he derives a large compensation from the blunders of his enemies. If he is justly liable to censure for the oppressiveness of his domestic and civil policy, he can, at any rate, point to M. Thiers as a proof that he is more enlightened than his antagonists in the conduct of foreign affairs, and that he maintains a more independent attitude than they would do towards the Holy See. He may have acquiesced reluctantly, but he has acquiesced in the union of Italy under Victor Emmanuel. He has not allowed himself to be influenced by the short-sighted as well as selfish notion that a powerful country on the other side of the Alps is a danger to France. He is not under the delusion that the Italians are still hopelessly divided by provincial jealousies and animosities. Nor is he prepared to doom the Romans to the interminable misery of subjection to the Papal rule. Whatever may be his faults, his Majesty is a man of the present day. He is ready to accept existing facts and tendencies, and to make the best of them, instead of trying to conduct affairs according to worn out schemes of policy. That cannot be said of M. Thiers. The Italy of to-day is to him the Italy of thirty years ago. He insists that she is disunited, notwithstanding all the proof to the contrary. He would keep her weak lest she should become hostile; and would run the risk of her enmity in order to secure the precarious and doubtful advantage of an alliance with Austria. But absurd as may be such a policy, it is not half so ridiculous as that of supporting the temporal power of the Pope as a protection to freedom of thought. Yet if we

rightly understand him, M. Thiers is of opinion that the intolerance which manifests itself in the publication of Encyclicals and documents of that kind, is simply due to the weakness of the Papacy; and that if it were strong and secure it would be tolerant, liberal, and enlightened. It is not surprising that such views as these have been repudiated by the other members of the Opposition, and by the Liberal press in Paris. Their promulgation has reduced M. Thiers to a state of political isolation, and has, for once, enabled M. Rouher to gain an easy victory over him. We shall not, however, follow the Minister through that portion of his speech which was devoted to mere refutation; for the chief interest of his address consisted in the light which it cast upon the yet unfulfilled intentions of the Emperor. He declared that France will carry out the convention of September, whatever course the Pope may adopt; and he maintained, in the most unequivocal terms, the right of the Romans to choose their own form of government. It is perfectly true that he also denied their right to annex their territory to another State. But he could hardly have admitted this without proclaiming in so many words that the Convention of September was a mere conveyance of Rome from Pius IX. to Victor Emmanuel. For such an avowal the French Government is not yet prepared, nor can we expect it from them. Perhaps they expect to make some profit out of the further stages of the transaction. At all events, they are disposed to enjoy, as long as possible, that gratitude on the part of the Italians which arises from an expectation of favours to come. But it is quite certain that if the Romans are allowed to drive out the Pope and set up a Government for themselves, it will be impossible to arrest the process of development at that stage. It may be convenient for the Emperor and his Ministers to talk diplomatically, at the present moment, about the "balance of power"; but he must know, if they do not, that it would be utterly impossible to refuse an independent Rome the right to become the capital of Italy. If the Pope be really left to himself, all the rest is a mere matter of time.

The speech of the Emperor Napoleon in answer to the address was remarkable for *aplomb* and audacity, if for nothing else. We cannot help envying the power of face manifested in the assurance that the national life of the country is being developed under the present *régime*; and that in the electoral movement and in the voice of the press the nation feels itself free. France must be an extraordinary country if this or anything like it be the truth. That the people may fear the abuse of liberty even more than that of power is possible enough. But that they should feel free under an electoral system, which does not allow them to associate to return an independent candidate, and which absolutely prohibits anything like political discussion in the journals, is more than we can believe even on the word of an emperor. We observe that while the deputies are exhorted to be content with "daily bringing a fresh stone to the edifice," not a hint is dropped about that crowning process of which we used to hear so much. Is it possible that His Majesty has definitively abandoned the idea of reconciling the liberty of France with the safety of his dynasty?

It is asserted in the *Provincial Correspondenz*, an official organ of the Prussian Minister of the Interior, that the King has resolved to remove his fleet from Dantzig to Kiel, and to make the latter port the head-quarters of his naval establishment. If this step be really taken, and if it be acquiesced in by Austria and the other German powers, the question of the Duchies will be virtually settled. Diplomats may go on talking about the destruction of Slesvig and Holstein, the form of their future government, or the name of their sovereign—but such discussions can have no practical interest. The territory conquered from Denmark will be substantially annexed to Prussia so soon as its chief port is converted into a Prussian arsenal. No one can imagine for a moment that if once annexed it will ever be parted with. And if Prussia once gains perfect command of its resources, and complete control over its inhabitants, it must be matter of perfect indifference through what machinery she chooses to govern. We cannot help hoping that M. von Bismarck has really determined to bring matters to a crisis in this trenchant manner. For if he does, we shall have some chance of discovering whether there is any other law or power in Germany than the will of the Prussian Premier; and if that point be determined in the negative—as it most probably will be—we shall be

saved for the future much dreary and troublesome speculation.

There are signs of progress even in Russia. The Emperor sternly suppressed the aspirations of the Moscow nobles after constitutional government; but he seems to look more favourably upon a modified liberty of the press. The Council of State has adopted a new press law, which will probably receive his Majesty's sanction on an early day. Under its provisions the censorship will be abolished upon all books containing more than ten sheets of printed matter, and also upon all newspapers, magazines, and periodical publications, whose editors are willing to submit to the system of warnings. The new system is evidently imitated from the French, but it is imitated with one remarkable improvement. A journal will be suppressed after three warnings, and the administration will have power to give the first two. But the third must be sanctioned by the Senate. It may perhaps be said that this does not amount to much, as the Senate is appointed by the Emperor. Still, the necessity of defending a measure before a deliberative assembly must put some check upon the caprices of a Minister; and, however feeble the protection which such a check may afford to the unhappy journalist, it is one which does not exist in France. It certainly cannot be denied that it constitutes a great advance upon the existing state of things in Russia.

A curious report reaches us from Italy. It is said that the Pope has addressed to Victor Emmanuel a letter proposing that his Majesty should appoint bishops to the vacant dioceses in the provinces which formerly constituted the Kingdom of Piedmont, and that his Holiness should nominate the bishops of the dioceses which once belonged to the States of the Church. As regards the bishoprics in Naples, Tuscany, Parma, and Modena, the Pope is said to be willing to treat, and it is added that the King of Italy is about sending a diplomatist to Rome to discuss the subject. Looking to the authority on which these statements rest, we cannot doubt that some negotiations of the kind are on the *tapis*; but it certainly seems unlikely that they should lead to any practical result. Even if the Pope be disposed to relax his hostility to Victor Emmanuel and the Italian kingdom, and to parley with the spoliators of St. Peter's patrimony, Victor Emmanuel can scarcely assent to a proposition which would draw a broad line of distinction between different parts of his kingdom, and would re-establish the ecclesiastical ascendancy of the Pope in the very provinces where it is most desirable that it should be kept under control.

The news from America is too important to be dealt with in a brief and summary manner; and we have therefore devoted a separate article to the discussion of the new phase into which the war has developed.

THE DEFEAT OF THE CONFEDERATES.

AFTER an heroic resistance of four years, the Confederates have at last been overwhelmed by superior numbers. Depending for recruits upon a population much smaller than that of the Federal States, and having no means of increasing their forces by bribing or crimping Europeans, it is only surprising that they should have so long maintained the unequal contest. Nor could they have done so had not their leaders possessed consummate military skill, and had not the rank and file made up for the want of numbers by brilliant courage and unsparing self-devotion. In other times, and against a less pertinacious antagonist, these qualities might have ensured a final victory, and national independence might have rewarded the patriotism by which it has been nobly earned. But in modern warfare Providence is more than ever on the side of the largest battalions and the longest purse. The modes in which greater strength and ampler resources can be made to tell are far more varied than formerly, and it is no more than justice to say that, amidst many blunders and much reckless waste, both of life and money, the Northerners have displayed abundant skill in availing themselves of every source of strength. Whatever we may think of the end which they had in view, or of the means by which they have pursued it, we cannot deny them such praise as may be due to unflinching stubbornness and resolute refusal to accept defeat. In the earlier part of the war their material and physical advantages were more than neutralized by the inferiority of their generals and by the indifferent discipline of their troops. But of late their armies have been led by

soldiers of capacity, if not of genius, and four years of incessant fighting have given them a veteran force. Under the circumstances, it would, perhaps, have been impossible for General Lee to conduct the struggle to a successful issue, even had he been invested with the full power of Dictator, and allowed to dispose, as he thought best, of the Confederate forces. Unfortunately this power was withheld from him until it was too late to be of much use; nor can we help suspecting that, even in the supreme crisis of his country, political considerations were pressed upon him, in a manner which disturbed his military judgment, and involved him in a strategic mistake.

The possession of Richmond was, no doubt, of great importance to the Confederates in a moral point of view. Its evacuation would have been tantamount to a defeat, even if Lee had carried off his army in safety to the hilly districts of Eastern Virginia. But had that measure been taken when the commander-in-chief was understood to have pressed it on the President, the crushing disasters of the last few days would at least have been avoided, and by a timely retreat Lee might have effected a junction between his own forces and the unbroken army under Johnston. It seems even doubtful whether any steps for retiring on Lynchburg were taken after the failure of the attack on Fort Steadman had shown the strength of Grant's left wing, and the tenacity with which he held a position menacing to the Confederate line of retreat by the Southside railway. The result of that battle evidently encouraged the Federal general to pursue vigorously his plan of enveloping Petersburg and taking its defences in flank. He took the offensive almost immediately. For the first two or three days his efforts were not crowned with much success. But on the 1st April Sheridan, who commanded on the extreme left of the Federals, assailed the Confederate right wing at a place called Five Forks, not far distant from the Southside railway. The Confederates, who are said to have been commanded by Longstreet, were strongly entrenched, and made a gallant resistance. But their antagonists were in overwhelming strength, as the correspondents of the New York papers admit, and the Northerners at length gained a decisive victory. It is probable that this defeat decided General Lee upon retreat; for when Grant assaulted the lines near Petersburg on the following day, he found them defended by a force quite unequal to any lengthened or effective stand. The main body of the Confederate troops had either fallen back to Richmond, or were retiring along the southern bank of the Appomattox with a view of reaching—by a wide sweep—the Southside railway at Burkesville junction on the road to Lynchburg. It was evidently Lee's plan to concentrate the whole of his army at this place, which is about fifty miles to the south-west of Richmond, and can be reached by several roads leading more or less directly from Richmond and Petersburg. To attain his object he evacuated the capital of Virginia in extreme haste, as is manifest from the quantity of guns and stores left behind or scattered upon the routes taken by the various corps of his army. But, unfortunately, Grant's left was nearer to the point of concentration than were the troops in and about Richmond. The Federal general availed himself of the advantage with skill and promptitude. Dividing that portion of his army which was available for the purpose into three columns, he marched at the head of one upon a point somewhat to the south of Burkesville, in order to intercept any portion of the Southern troops which might attempt to turn south and join Johnston. Another column under Sheridan advanced by some country roads on the north side of the railway; while a third under Meade took a direction inclining slightly more to the northward. The two latter columns were evidently in a position to co-operate together; while their line of advance brought them directly upon the flank of Lee's disheartened and demoralized troops as they fell back towards Burkesville. Could the Confederates have cleared the points at which their enemy was driving before he arrived, all might yet have been comparatively well. This, however, was not to be. A portion of Meade's force came up on the 5th instant with the retreating army at a place called Deatontown. Promptly seconded by other corps which were at hand, they fell with fatal effect upon the Southern troops, who no doubt received at this point a crushing and decisive defeat. According to the Federal reports, several thousand prisoners, including six generals, were taken; while 14 guns, and a large number of caissons and wagons were also captured. There may be some exaggeration in this, but looking at the circumstances under which Lee was attacked, it seems impossible that, if defeated at all, he should not have been disastrously defeated. It says much for the steadfastness both of the troops and of their commander, that a portion of the once formidable army of the Potomac should—although turned

aside from Burkesville—have still made good their retreat to Farmsville—the point where the Southside railway crosses the Appomattox. Here the Confederates occupied a position of considerable strength at the date of the last accounts. But their halt could be of no long duration. For, even if the troops of Meade and Sheridan did not assail them in front, the divisions under Grant and Ord which had already reached Burkesville were in a position to reach their rear by a short march, while the advance of Hancock at the head of 20,000 men up the Shenandoah valley, furnished the strongest possible reason for losing no time in gaining Lynchburg, still nearly 50 miles distant. We can hardly venture to hope that the beaten army will reach the sheltering fortifications of that place without further and considerable loss, or that when there it will be able to make any effectual stand against the forces which will be concentrated against it. Something, perhaps, might still be done—decent terms of peace at any rate might be extorted from the conquerors—if Johnston should be able to join Lee. But it seems highly improbable that he should effect such a junction, in spite both of Sherman's army and of the forces which Grant will be able to throw across his line of retreat. Taking the most favourable view of recent events—making every allowance for the exaggeration of Federal writers—there seems no further chance for the South in the open field. It is possible that resistance might be protracted for some time by a guerilla warfare; but we confess our inability to see any possible advantage in such a course. The suppression of guerilla bands is only a matter of time to a general in command of the vast army of which Grant can now dispose. The wisest course for the Confederate statesmen would probably be to seize the earliest moment for making peace. Flushed as the Federals are with a triumph that exceeds their wildest hopes—they would find a certain satisfaction in parading their magnanimity before the world, by granting tolerable terms to their fallen foe. They may not be so generous, or so easy tempered, when the first bloom of their victory has gone off, and they have had time to think of the cost at which it has been won. But immediate surrender may well appear intolerable to Mr. Davis and his colleagues, nor shall we be surprised if they listen to the suggestions of their hearts rather than of their heads, and make some further, although hopeless stand.

For hopeless any further stand must be. It is of no use attempting to conceal that fact from ourselves. Had Lee retreated with an unbroken army to the hilly districts of Virginia, he might have carried on the war there for some time; but, as it is, he can do nothing. We may as well at once make up our minds to the speedy restoration of Federal rule over the whole of the former United States. We once had an opportunity of creating a balance of power on the American continent; we might have gained for England a grateful, faithful, and powerful ally in the Southern Confederacy. We might even have done so without any risk; because, if we had acted in combination with France when she requested our co-operation, the North must have acquiesced in any terms of peace which the Western nations had chosen to impose. Considerations of humanity and of interest alike impelled us to intervene. For we might have stayed a devastating war, and have secured, once for all, the safety of our Canadian possessions. Unfortunately, these are not the days of far-seeing statesmanship. Weak Governments are too much pressed by questions of the day and the hour to bestow much thought upon those which are not immediately troublesome. It would have been inconvenient and even dangerous for Lord Palmerston and his Cabinet to encounter the attacks of the Federal partisans in England. The recognition of Southern independence, or the acceptance of the Emperor Napoleon's proposition to mediate, might have saved the country from a terrible war half-a-dozen years hence; but, in the meantime, it might have had an awkward effect upon the stability of a Cabinet which exists upon the condition of doing nothing. So nothing was done. Events were allowed to take their course. Instead of attempting to guide them, we stood by and looked on, although every one admitted that our interests were vitally concerned; and what is now the result? That we have not a single friend on the North American continent out of our own colonies. The Confederates have certainly every reason to cherish the bitterest animosity towards us; and in their hour of disaster and overthrow they must feel acutely how different might have been their fate if we had not regarded their struggle for independence with coldness and indifference. If they are to be enslaved by the North, they will, assuredly, feel no slight satisfaction in goading on their masters to attack those whom they regard as in no slight degree the cause of their misery. If they are themselves humbled, it will, at least,

be some consolation to see England humbled too. On the other hand, the Federals have no cause to hate us—but, nevertheless, they do. They show it on every occasion; and even Mr. Seward could not resist the temptation of celebrating the fall of Richmond by insulting England. It is evident that the first thought which that event suggested to him was, that it would now be safe “to take a rise out of the Britishers.” Accordingly in the speech which he delivered *more Americana* to an admiring mob, he had civil speeches for the Emperors of China and Austria, and for the Sultan of Turkey; he had a good-humoured joke for the Emperor of France; but for England, and for England alone, he had a threat. “If England would be just to the United States, Canada,” he was good enough to say, “will remain undisturbed by the United States.” There can be no doubt as to the meaning of such language. It simply amounts to an intimation that, if we like to pay for the damage done by the *Alabama*, and to meet any other wishes that the United States may happen to form, we shall be at liberty to keep Canada, so long as the free and enlightened citizens of the best of all possible republics do not particularly want a new State or two. But if we do not manifest this compliant spirit—then, of course, we shall not be acting “justly” to the United States, and the consequences are obvious. For our own part, we were quite prepared to receive this broad hint; we shall be equally prepared to see it followed up. In that case, one poor consolation will remain to us. We have constantly pointed out that the conquest of the South was fraught with the most imminent danger to this country. And whatever may happen in that day of Northern insolence and power which is fast approaching, we at least shall be able to reflect with satisfaction, that it is no fault of ours if those who have long had the will, should be found in possession of the power, to insult and injure England.

THE VOLUNTEER REVIEW.

THE review of over 20,000 Volunteers, which was held last Monday, on the Downs, near Brighton, cannot be regarded as a military spectacle alone. The presence of so large a force of all arms on a public holiday, in by no means a central part of the kingdom, has a deep political and national meaning. The numerical strength, the organization, discipline, and equipment of the troops manœuvred at Brighton on Easter Monday form an annual gauge of the efficiency of our army of reserve and of our security from invasion. No military man with any pretence to either professional education or liberality of ideas, would hold that our regular army, unassisted, could cope with the forces which an invader would land on our coast if he had secured the command of the sea. It is to such men as marched past Sir Robert Walpole last Monday that the army must look for support and assistance in case of our ever having to fight a battle on our own soil. No wonder, then, that so much public attention is bestowed upon this annual gathering of the Volunteers. When the movement of 1860 was originated, the prophets of evil, who always take the sinister view of every subject, declared that when the novelty and excitement wore off, men would be unwilling to continue the drudgery of military education; that when the uniforms were tarnished and no longer glittered in the ball-room, the stimulus for soldiering would wear away, the drill-ground would be deserted, and our army of reserve become a shadow and a myth. Two-and-twenty thousand men of all arms, with forty-six guns, appeared as representatives of a force of 165,000 on the Easter Monday in the fifth year of the movement, to refute these gloomy predictions.

The actual review was preceded by the marching past of the whole force, which afforded an excellent opportunity for seeing the power of manœuvre and the equipment of every corps. It can hardly be expected that men to whom drilling is only a recreation from the more serious pursuits of life can attain to such excellence in the more mechanical portions of drill as the regular soldier, who devotes his whole time and attention to the subject; nor should we be acting as true friends to the Volunteers were we to tell them that their marching is equal to that of the regular army. It cannot be expected to be so. It can be regarded only as a criterion of the excellence to which they would attain had they the same opportunities for improvement as their more highly practised comrades. From the display of marching past on Monday, there can be no doubt that with a very few weeks of constant training the Volunteer corps of the country would be the best drilled army in the world; nor can this be wondered at, for the raw material of the Volunteer recruit is immensely superior in intellect, education,

and generally in physical activity, to the average of any recruit of any country. Although we do not wish to join in the mistaken laudations that have been heaped by the daily papers so indiscriminately on all the corps engaged, we do not intend to say a word against the Volunteer movement; we only desire to draw the attention of the Volunteers themselves to slight deficiencies, which being pointed out will easily be repaired, but which, concealed by the too anxious flattery of over-zealous admirers, might be passed over, and ultimately be of disadvantage to the cause. The three corps who seemed to excel all others in passing the flagstaff were the London Scottish, the London Irish, and the Inns of Court. The marching of these was equal to that of any battalion of the line; their equipment was serviceable, uniform, and well put on, and the appearance of the men in their properly-sized companies elicited the well-merited applause of both civilian and professional spectators. In some of the other corps we noticed a certain neglect of some matters of detail, which, although apparently trivial, have been found by experience to be of great value. The companies were not properly sized, a fact which not only destroys the appearance, but also deteriorates from the efficiency of a battalion. No uniform method of carrying the cloak, nor uniformity of the cloak itself, was observed in some corps; and in many places the long hair so objectionable to the regular soldier, and so inconvenient on service or even in exercise at home, was observable. Before passing on to remark upon the actual sham fight, we must bestow a few words of praise on the artillery, especially on the heavy guns drawn by agricultural horses. To no more useful purpose can the Volunteers direct their attention than to the service and transport of heavy guns, and the appearance and performance of the artillery showed that the superior education of the Volunteers renders them peculiarly adapted for artillery duties.

The sham fight took place in a large natural amphitheatre, which afforded excellent opportunities for the spectators to observe the whole course of the action. The two armies were drawn up on the opposite slopes of the hollow, the defending force covering a line of retreat on Brighton. The attacking force, drawn up in three lines, made a strong demonstration against the front of the enemy with the first line, while the two others were moved to the right, so as to outflank the left flank of the defenders. A general attack was then made, which rendered the position of the defenders, who were numerically much inferior to their assailants, perfectly untenable. Such is a general sketch of the dispositions, which have been minutely described in the daily journals. Our object is to glance at the behaviour of the troops more than the manœuvres of the generals. There cannot be the least doubt that the movements of all the brigades were made not only creditably, but really well. The firing was good, regular, and well sustained, though we were sorry to notice in a few exceptional cases the fatal tendency of all troops to fire without taking any aim, and consequently to discharge their pieces ineffectively into the air. The London Rifle Brigade showed peculiar alertness and quickness in throwing themselves into rallying-squares when they were charged by a detachment of the Carabiniers, which was admired by all who witnessed it. The men did not appear more fatigued than regular troops would have been at the conclusion of a long field-day, although it must be remembered that they had no knapsacks to carry.

On the whole, the late review shows that there has not only been a numerical increase since last year, but also an improvement in power of drill and organization; an improvement which has made rapid strides within the last twelvemonth, and which we have every reason to believe will progress even more rapidly during the next. If we have pointed out trifling deficiencies, it is only in the hope of seeing them repaired by next year, for we are true friends to this great national cause, and we are anxious that where so much zeal, energy, and perseverance has been shown, a little attention may be devoted to some minor details—an attention which will enable us more than ever to point to our Volunteer army as the most glorious monument of the energy, the loyalty, and the contentment of our land.

THE ST. ALBAN'S RAIDERS AND EXTRADITION TREATIES.

It is of great importance that we should form clear ideas respecting the nature of the demand, and the nature of our duties, in relation to the extradition of those called the “St. Alban's Raiders,” whose case has assumed such a variety of phases before the Canadian Courts. It is important, not merely as regulating our conduct in the present instance, but as forming a precedent for our conduct when similar extra-
dition cases may arise.

tion treaties are invoked for the delivery up of offenders belonging to a State at war with the demandant.

The Ashburton treaty made at Washington in 1842, between the plenipotentiaries of the British and United States' governments, provided in its tenth article that either nation should, on requisition by the other, "deliver up to justice all persons who, being charged with the crime of murder, or of assault with intent to commit murder, or piracy, or arson, or robbery, or forgery, or the utterance of forged paper, committed within the jurisdiction of either of the high contracting parties, should seek an asylum, or should be found within the territories of the other, provided that this should only be done upon such evidence of criminality as, according to the laws of the place where the fugitive or person so charged should be found, would justify his apprehension and commitment for trial if the crime or offence had been there committed." This treaty was confirmed, and due provisions made for carrying it out, by the statute 6 and 7 Victoria, c. 76. Subsequent Acts of the Canadian legislature altered in some degree the machinery in respect to the issuing and signing of warrants, and it was upon technical points thus arising that Judge Coursol gave his decision against extradition. But as this technicality has been set aside, and the question is now being considered on the words of the treaty, embodied in an Act of Parliament of Great Britain, it is needless to consider it further.

It is also to be conceded that the case in which the question arises is one where, if there was no complication of belligerency, the treaty would clearly apply. The St. Alban's raiders were men who, in disguise of peaceful citizens, resided for some days in a hotel in the town, who one morning entered the banks, put pistols to the heads of the cashiers, seized the money in the till, and made off to Canada. Seized, after crossing the border by their pursuers, they were given up to the Canadian authorities, and a warrant for their extradition was formally applied for. It is clear that their offence was, in the eye both of the law of the United States and of Canada, as of every other civilized community, robbery, if it was not an act of war; and, therefore, the treaty would, had there been no war, have applied as matter of course.

But the prisoners set up the defence that they were officers and soldiers of a State at war with the United States, that they acted under an express commission, authorizing and directing their procedure, signed by President Davis; that their act was, therefore, not robbery, but warlike capture from an enemy; that, therefore, it did not fall within the provisions of the treaty, and that, as we had recognized a state of belligerency between their country and the United States, we were estopped from surrendering them as guilty of a civil offence. On the other side, the counsel for the United States argued that, granting a state of war, the act complained of was not consonant with the usages of war, nor covered by its privileges, being a mere isolated attempt upon a town remote from the seat of hostilities. But they also seem to have denied that there was any state of war between the Federals and Confederates, insisting that the latter were still citizens, and consequently amenable to the ordinary jurisdiction of the courts.

If we consider these opposing pleas in the light of international law, we shall see that on both sides they are either untenable or irrelevant. In the first place, it is impossible that we should refuse to the Confederates all the rights of belligerents. These rights have not only been recognized by the Queen's proclamation, but they have been, in the whole course of the war, recognised by the acts of the Federals themselves. If the Confederates are not belligerents they must be traitors, outlaws, and pirates; but the Federals have in no one instance shot, hung, or even tried them as such. On the contrary, they have exchanged prisoners with them, acknowledged flags of truce, treated captured property as prize of war, captured persons as prisoners of war, and have sent and received commissioners to treat of peace. Moreover, when General Dix issued an order, still unrecalled, that the troops should follow and fire on any future raiders, he recognised them as at war, for troops have no right to fire on citizens, even though escaping after committing a robbery. Therefore it is clearly too late for the States' authorities to say that there is no belligerency between them and the Confederates, and that therefore they are to be surrendered as ordinary fugitives from regular justice.

But, on the other hand, it does not follow that the Confederate commission would cover with immunity such acts as the St. Alban's raid. War has a sharp code of its own. It hangs up a spy, though a commissioned officer, and expressly sent on that service. It sanctions the putting of guerillas to the sword, whenever caught; a principle which the Duke of Wellington distinctly announced in his proclamation on entering France. It warrants the putting to death a garrison that

attempts to defend an untenable port. And therefore it is by no means clear that the persons guilty of such a proceeding as the plunder of a bank five hundred miles from the seat of war, would be protected from the summary application of martial law at the hands of their captors, by the mere fact that they had orders from their superior officers to make the attempt. Certainly, the Confederates, after hanging the marauders of Sherman's army, could scarcely expect that the Federals should give longer shrift to the St. Alban's raiders. But when the United States argue that if the act was in violation of the rules of war it was therefore robbery, they go too far on the other side, and lay down a position on which we must join issue with them. The instances we have referred to show clearly the distinction. In a state of war a spy may be hung, though civilly guilty of no offence whatsoever. So, in a state of war, it is not usual to hang a captured enemy, though he has killed one of our own countrymen, and therefore, civilly, is guilty of murder. It does not follow then that what would in peace be robbery, is robbery during a state of war, even though it may be an offence punishable by the usages of war.

In this difficulty of conflicting claims the true principle to guide us is this. A state of war (which we repeat we must consider as existing between Federals and Confederates) annihilates all legal rights between the two belligerents. To kill each other is no longer murder; to take each other's property is no longer robbery. No doubt, the common practice of civilization limits this anarchy to the cases where the killing and the spoiling are done by recognised authority and in recognised fashion, and it sanctions the punishing of an excess by instant penalties. But these penalties are not the imposition of a law; they are only the reverting to a state of lawlessness and the original rights of war. A spy or a plunderer is hung, not by statute, but because every captive's life is forfeited, and his is not to be spared if he violates the conditions which usually are allowed to protect life. These principles are thoroughly recognised in our own jurisprudence. When a nation is at war with us, all its citizens are what our books style "alien enemies." In strictness their lives and their goods are forfeited, and it is only as an act of grace that during good behaviour they are allowed in their persons legal protection. So clearly is this the case that our government may at any moment, and without any cause assigned, seize and imprison them for life, as Napoleon in fact did in the case of the English residents in France when the last war broke out, violating thereby no law, but only the courtesy of nations. An alien enemy having, then, no rights of property or person, has, in strictness, no rights of trial. He cannot maintain an action, he cannot sue out a *habeas corpus* for his liberation. If he commits a criminal offence we may, as a matter of grace, allow him a trial, but we need not, for we have already a right to imprison or to kill him, and we may exercise these rights without form of trial, if we think them proper penalties for the offence we assume him to be guilty of.

Applying these principles to the case of offences between the Federals and Confederates, we see clearly that a bank plunder cannot be robbery—not because it is covered or directed by a commission, but because the state of war has abolished all laws and all rights as between the two parties. The rules of war may regulate their mutual conduct, but they cannot establish civil rights. There is such an absence of civil rights that if Confederates are found on Federal ground, they are liable to be imprisoned, or shot without trial. But if this is the case on one side, it must be equally so on the other. The Confederates may capture their enemy's property where they can find it, being thereby guilty of no civil offence, though subject to be strung up on the next tree if caught. But, being guilty of no civil offence, it is clear that we cannot surrender them as having been guilty of robbery.

If, indeed, we reflect on the consequences of our admitting extradition in such cases, we shall recognise the impossibility of our acting on it. The Confederates, whom we delivered up, could claim no trial in the ordinary courts. Their own plea, that they are belligerent, would exclude them, as alien enemies, from all rights. They might be tried by court-martial and shot, or hung or imprisoned for life, or transported as their captors might please. Kennedy, in fact, was so tried by court-martial for a similar offence. Now, it is impossible for us to sanction a principle which would, in like manner, call upon us to surrender fugitive Poles, or Hungarians, or Italians on the charge of having lawlessly broken into dwelling-houses in the territories of Russia, or Austria, or the States of the Church. The acclamation with which, only last session, the House of Commons dismissed a Bill which might have allowed to Prussia

a pretence for such a claim, proves how sound is our national instinct on this point. But it is well also to point out how instinct is justified and supported by sound principle.

At the same time it is right to remember that the same principle involves proper limitations, and imposes certain duties. One of our own subjects could not justify a raid, or an act of piracy, or robbery, on the plea of belligerency, because that plea applies only to subjects of the respective States, not to those who are subjects of neutral States. On this ground Burley, a British subject, who attempted the capture of a United States' vessel, clearly fell within the extradition treaty, and was properly surrendered to take his trial in the ordinary tribunals. And though we may not surrender Confederates, we are bound to punish them ourselves if they make our territory a base of operations, and so infringe our neutrality, and expose us to risk of war. Enjoying our hospitality and protection, they are as much bound by our laws as we are, and if they infringe our laws, to the detriment of a neighbouring and friendly State, we are bound to prevent or punish them. If we failed in this duty, we should, according to every authority in international law, justify the Federals in pursuing them into our territory, on the very same principle on which we justified the capture and burning of the *Caroline* in their's during the Canadian rebellion. These deplorable consequences will, however, we trust, be averted by the Canadian Supreme Courts refusing extradition, but itself inflicting punishment on the raiders. Since we can do this, it is needless to enter into hypothetical cases in which, during war, crime might chance to remain unredressed. No laws can meet every conceivable case, and a state of war is too unnatural not to bring in its train certain possibilities of crime being unpunished. This, however, is not our concern at present, where a clear principle guides us, and enables us to do right without fear of doing wrong.

"CARTHUSIANA DOMUS."

THE *Times* has done good service to the Charterhouse in opening its columns to a full discussion of the advantages and disadvantages which would attend the recommended removal of the school, and has conferred a still further benefit by giving the weight of its own opinions in favour of the proposed change. Indeed, it appears to us that the question is so one-sided as hardly to admit of an argument; but as some minds are—like the institutions they admire—of a mediaeval nature, and incapable of appreciating the changes which an altered state of society necessitates, it may be desirable to see on what possible grounds the recommendation of the Royal Commissioners can be objected to, and to consider how far it is strengthened by the arguments of old Carthusians in its favour.

The recommendation to remove the school from the very dirtiest quarter of the metropolis to some pleasant country spot, within easy access of London by rail, appears to us not only based on common sense, but calculated to place Charterhouse on an equal footing with its more modern competitors, which all enjoy the preference which parents, in selecting a school for their children, must naturally give to open and healthy situations. But it is urged, on the other hand, that Charterhouse is not unhealthy. True, the locality is not subject to any special epidemics; but surely no sane person (unafflicted with mediaeval ophthalmia) will be found to advocate the training of boys' bodies and minds in the midst of a crowded city as *advantageous* either on the score of health or improvement of intellect. We have all felt the effects of atmosphere and local situations on our own spirits, and can we doubt their action on the mind and character of youth? Contrast the gloomy, prison-like playground of Charterhouse, its black walls and blacker trees, with Eton's play-fields studded with stately elms and bounded by Father Thames, or with Harrow's cricket-ground and far-stretching landscape, and then think which of them would best afford the health and happiness which, besides education, we seek to attain for our children.

We never yet met a Carthusian—and it has been our good fortune to know many—who preserved a romantic reminiscence of the *locale* in which his boyish days were spent. He may have been well educated, liked his masters, and have made pleasant friends, but he never could have the same feelings for the school itself as are inspired by Eton and Harrow.

Another point in connection with the removal of Charterhouse is that of day-boys; and upon this question two Carthusian correspondents of the *Times*, "Carthusianus tempore Russell," and "W. John G. Talbot," differ very materially. The former states that in his time day-boys formed an insig-

nificant portion of the school, and seldom rose above the lower forms; while Mr. Talbot steps forward as their champion, and shows that while he was at Charterhouse the day-boys numbered about fifty out of 180, and that he himself—a day-boy—became captain of the school. Now we believe that both these gentlemen are to a certain extent right in their statements. "Tempore Russell," when Charterhouse numbered its 500 scholars, day-boys were at a discount. Their number was small, and, beyond their attendance at school-hours, they had nothing in common with the foundation boys or boarders. They took no part in the school games, and old Carthusians may remember the time when if a stray day-boy was detected within bounds after school hours, he became the legitimate object of a hunt. As, however, boarders fell off in number the day-boy element increased; and, doubtless, if the school be continued in its present site, it will, with the exception of the foundation, become an establishment for the education of day-boys only. But ought this transition to be suffered? and ought the intentions of the founder to be so completely frustrated? The foundation boys, whose claims for consideration, we submit, are paramount to all, can only reap the full and proper advantages of their position by being members of a large and influential public school; and this conversion of Charterhouse into a day-school would be equally impolitic and unjust.

We therefore sincerely trust that this degeneracy is not in store for one of the oldest, and, at one time, most popular institutions of this country, but that the school of Havelock, Thackeray, and of Leech may regain the *prestige* it acquired in their boyish days, and that under a brighter sun and purer atmosphere "floreat ad aeternum."

THE TRIPLE TRIAL.

AFTER three trials, in two of which he was the accused, and in one a witness, Serafino Pelizzoni has been liberated from custody, and no further penalty hangs over his head for his share, whatever it may have been, in the tragical encounter at the Golden Anchor, which took place on the evening of the 26th of last December, and led to the death of Michael Harrington. When the verdict of Not Guilty was given at the latest of those trials—that of Pelizzoni for wounding the pot-boy, Rebbeck—an exclamation of delight and satisfaction burst from the persons in court, such as we do not usually find in trials not involving any political issue, and which Mr. Baron Channell, who tried the case, vainly endeavoured to repress. This proceeded partly, there can be no doubt, from the Italians present, who were naturally pleased at seeing their countryman rescued from a very grave position; but it is certain that many English joined in the expression of feeling, both inside and outside the court. The fact can only be accounted for by the existence of a very strong and general opinion that Pelizzoni was innocent of the killing of Harrington and of the wounding of Rebbeck. When to this are added the much more important facts that Gregorio Mogni has confessed to both crimes, that a jury has found him guilty on evidence which seemed to them conclusive, independently of his self-accusation, and that another jury has now acquitted Pelizzoni of the minor charge of wounding Rebbeck, it may, we think, be assumed that there is a strong probability of the right man having at length been made responsible for both offences, and that the Government did nothing more than its simple duty in setting Serafino free after his long detention of nearly four months, and his horribly near prospect of the rope and the white cap. Never has a criminal charge been more perseveringly sifted; and assuredly it must be added that never did one require more sifting, on account of the extraordinary complication of the facts, and the singular contradictions—though possibly the perfectly honest contradictions—of the witnesses. We will not go so far as to say that even now the case is entirely freed from doubt; but the balance of probability seems so much in favour of the final decision being the right one that we see no ground for any apprehension that we have a murderer in our midst, whom the law had actually got firmly in its grip, but whom it was afterwards bamboozled into relinquishing. It was decidedly a fortunate occurrence that Pelizzoni's earnest demand at the final trial last week, viz., that the jury should be half composed of foreigners, could not be complied with. Had he got six Italians among the jury, and the result had been the same as it has turned out to be (of which in such a case there could be no doubt), it might have been said that national feeling had had something to do with the acquittal; but, under the circumstances, the jury having been composed entirely of Englishmen, such an objection cannot possibly be made. The facts have been examined into with all fairness

and impartiality, and the result, though it may displease some, cannot be honestly impeached.

We need not again trace the labyrinth of statement and counter-statement into which the evidence branches out, since, in commenting on the two first trials in our impression of March 11th, we were at some pains to place both sides of the question distinctly before the reader, and to show in what respects different portions of the testimony confirmed, and in what respects contradicted, each other. The view we then took, that the tendency of the evidence was rather to fix the guilt on Mogni than on Pelizzoni, is upheld by the additional facts brought out on the third trial. The strongest point on the side of the original prosecution was the emphatic statement of several of the witnesses that Pelizzoni was the only Italian in the room at the time Harrington and the others were stabbed. It is now shown beyond dispute that the same witnesses had said the very reverse when examined at the police-office immediately after the transaction. Without imputing to them wilful perversion, it is certain that they were much more likely to be right when the facts were fresh in their memory than after the lapse of some weeks and the confusing effect of police suggestions. It was admitted by these witnesses, when cross-examined at the final trial, that this discrepancy existed between their earlier and their later testimony; and no satisfactory account was given of the difference. Then, additional witnesses were brought forward, to confirm the case for the defence, that there was a rush of several Italians into the room, for the purpose of avenging some real or fancied insult offered by the English to their foreign associates; and, though some of these witnesses were themselves Italians, their evidence showed no sign of perjury, and they were supported by English testimony. It is difficult to understand why this evidence was not produced on the two first trials, and, notwithstanding the opinion expressed by Baron Channell that the police acted properly throughout, the public will hardly be persuaded that the constables and inspectors concerned in the case did not show an undue precipitancy in assuming the guilt of Pelizzoni, and an excess of professional tenacity in clinging at all hazards to their first impression. Another circumstance of singular force, as helping to fix the guilt on Mogni, is the fact of the surgeon who attended Rebbeck having said that the blow was probably struck by a left-handed man, which Mogni proves to be. Lastly, we have the statement of Mogni himself, who swears that he stabbed Rebbeck as well as Harrington, and even gives a horribly precise account of the way in which he committed both acts. It is suggested, by those who have made up their minds that Pelizzoni dealt both blows, that Mogni is animated by some romantic devotion to his cousin, and is ready to endure five years' penal servitude to save him from the gallows; and it is likewise contended that the other Italian witnesses have entered into a deliberate conspiracy to further that end. Such a theory is too wild for serious discussion. The conduct of Mogni immediately after the affray was in every respect that of a man conscious of guilt; his knife, which he took care to get rid of on the evening in question, was just such a weapon as might have inflicted the wounds, while Pelizzoni had no knife about him but a small one, which manifestly had not been, and could not have been, used for such a purpose; the latter had not had an opportunity before his arrest of getting rid of any weapon; and the question of identity is confused and rendered doubtful by the likeness of the two prisoners, who are cousins. We therefore do not see how it was possible for the jury last Saturday to come to any other decision than that at which they arrived.

So extraordinary a case must not be allowed to pass without the lessons which it teaches being taken to heart, and properly applied. Leaving out of view the more extreme question of the fitness or unfitness of attaching an irrevocable penalty to crimes which can only be proved by the fallible process of circumstantial evidence (though it is impossible not to see that the advocates for the abolition of capital punishment have a strong argument in their favour in the narrow escape of Pelizzoni from hanging), two very obvious morals arise out of the three trials and the two convictions which have so powerfully excited public attention during the last few months. One is the necessity for a public prosecutor. At present, the police are the prosecutors in such cases; and, while we do not wish to attribute to them any motives of exceptional malignity, it is beyond cavil that their sense of calm and impartial justice is blunted by the constant wrestle with crime and rascality, and the compulsion which they are under of manœuvring and counter-plotting. They are imperfectly-educated men, having only a coarse perception of the value of evidence; and, when once they make up their minds that a certain person is guilty, they seem to possess a false pride in standing to their original

idea through thick and thin. Of late years we have seen many crimes escape punishment altogether, the police being manifestly from the first on the wrong scent; and we have now only just been spared, by a most singular train of events, the horror of hanging a man probably quite innocent of his imputed crime, and then, perhaps, of discovering, when it was too late, the fatal error we had committed. In the hands of an educated and responsible lawyer, such mistakes would be far less likely to occur; and the law would gain in dignity by being set in motion by one better qualified for such a task than those can be whose duties are of a totally different kind. The other suggestion is the growing want of a Court of Criminal Appeal. The peculiar circumstances of the Pelizzoni case gave the accused a veritable second trial, which established his innocence; but such circumstances do not often happen, while the need of a higher court is constantly arising. A kind of hesitation is creeping over the administration of justice, the effect, doubtless, of an ever-increasing conscientiousness in the disposal of life and liberty. We are continually revising our verdicts; but as yet we have absolutely no proper tribunal for their revision. Will not this triple trial teach us the value of such a tribunal, and excite us to the satisfaction of a judicial want?

DR. JOHN CRAIG.

WE thought that when we had disposed of the pauper nurses of St. Giles's Infirmary we had learnt the worst that could be told us of poor Richard Gibson's death, as far as the inhumanity of those who had the care of him contributed to it. But we have only had to live a week longer to find that the misconduct of these tipsy old harpies is thrown into the shade by the greater sin of an educated gentleman, a member of a profession from which we have a right, above all things, to expect compassion towards human suffering. He could not, as they could, plead either ignorance, or the irksomeness of compelled and unrewarded services. If they neglected their patients, they at least were not voluntary candidates for the task of nursing them. If they sold them the dinners to which they had a right, and got tipsy on the beer which the doctor had ordered them for a stimulant, they acted as they were likely to act. We do not expect grapes from thorns, or figs from thistles. Their fault was less theirs than that of the system which appointed them to a duty for which they had not a single qualification. But Dr. John Craig stands in a very different category. By the obligations he undertook, by the duty he owed to his profession and to his own position, by the helplessness and the unfriended condition of those committed to his charge, he was bound to do his work thoroughly, and leave nothing undone which skill or zeal could suggest to alleviate their sufferings. Yet, on his own showing, he has, in the case at least of poor Gibson, fallen scandalously short of his duty; and his evidence is not without admissions that he did not even take the commonest precautions to fit himself for its proper discharge.

We will not pain our readers by a description of the state in which Gibson was found by the constable who visited the infirmary after M'Gee's letter to Sir Thomas Henry. Indeed, words cannot describe it. It drew even from the parish overseer who accompanied him the exclamation, "It is dreadful." But it was not only the work of disease; neglect had quite as much to do with it. The man was lying on a bed on which the poorest labourer would not have slept; on a thin mattress laid upon the hard boards. Dr. Craig saw the bed; saw that it was unfit for a man whose body was covered with sores. He says that he had the power to order extra bedding if he had chosen, and that the governor never refused him anything he asked for. Why, then, did he not order it? Is it possible that he was ignorant of his patient's condition? He had attended him first in October for a few days, after Gibson's admission. He resumed his attendance on the 16th or 17th of December, and continued it till the man died. Either he must have known Gibson's state, or he had not taken the pains to ascertain it. In either case he failed in his duty, and failed grossly. The strong probability is that the latter supposition is correct. When he resumed the charge of Gibson in December he did not consult the card which hangs at the top of each patient's bed to see what treatment and diet he was on. He found him on the ordinary "mutton diet" of the infirmary, and on that diet he left him till the middle of January. But when asked by Mr. Farnall of what it consisted, he absolutely could not tell him. Again, Gibson had potatoes, but how many Dr. Craig could not say. He had broth, but how much, or of what it was made, he was also ignorant.

He professed to examine each patient every day, but when pressed by Mr. Farnall he admitted that he neither examined nor spoke to Gibson daily. Nay, though he knew that the patient was suffering from ulceration of the left leg, he could not say that he did more than examine it once a week. The unfortunate man's bed he never examined at all. These direct admissions are not the only evidence he bears against himself. His excuses and contradictions are equally remarkable. He explained his neglect to examine Gibson daily by saying that deceased's face was sometimes averted! He said, again, that he considered one paid nurse sufficient, if the pauper nurses were efficient, though he formerly wrote in the workhouse book that "one paid nurse is quite insufficient for the requirements of the sick in this house." He did not remember whether, when he was passing Gibson without being aware that he was delirious (which he must have ascertained, if he had done his duty), another pauper called his attention to him. But he does remember having checked M'Gee when the latter was about to complain of the state of another patient: "M'Gee was going to speak to me, and I said I did not require anyone to tell me."

If he did not, it was certainly not because of the diligence with which he discharged his duties. We cannot be surprised at the neglect of the nurses when the doctor set such an example. But from first to last the whole system pursued in this infirmary is a gross violation of common sense and humanity. The patients have breakfast at eight, dinner at twelve, and tea at four. After tea they have nothing till the next morning. If their appetites will not accommodate themselves to these hours, so much the worse for the patients. They must eat by the clock. If they have an inclination for food after the last appointed hour, they must wait till eight o'clock next morning. So rigidly is this stupid and brutal punctuality observed, that when Dr. Craig, four days before Gibson's death, ordered him a pint of beer daily, he could not get it till the next day, though he was sinking. "It had to be ordered a day beforehand." By what solemn formalities, we wonder, is the requisition for a pint of beer accompanied in the St. Giles's workhouse? Surely the people who make these pernicious rules must be destitute of the ordinary sympathies of humanity. They must look upon a pauper as a Yankee looks upon a nigger. Indeed, we have had a startling proof in the course of this investigation into Gibson's death that they do so. For when M'Gee was about to ask some questions of Dr. Craig, one of the guardians begged of Mr. Farnall that they should be asked through him, so as to save the medical man from being subjected to a pauper's catechizing. This Christian request was not complied with. A pauper's catechizing, indeed! Poor M'Gee, pauper as he is, has acted throughout this miserable business with a humanity and a manliness which should put guardians, doctor, and nurses to the blush.

THE HOMES OF THE PEOPLE.

WE are apt to feel too secure against the plague. That most terrible disease is almost permanent in the East, at least in a modified form, and nothing but quarantine laws keep it from our shores. Year after year it is engendered from infected matter accumulating under the burning sun. It hovers continually on the coasts of the Mediterranean; and those who stroll along the beach at Malta or Leghorn often see, just rising above the waters, the gloomy walls where its victims are expiring. "There it is," they say, "and there it will remain;" but their confidence may one day prove misplaced. There seems to be a law of the universe which requires occasional thinning of overgrown populations. The Asiatic cholera stalked through Europe in spite of quarantine; so may some Russian epidemic or the plague. One oversight may bring the Black Death to millions. One and one only of those ships, whose yellow flags flap lazily from the foremast in the Lazaretto harbour, may loosen from her moorings unpurified, and, after a lapse of thirty years, disembark some dreaded pestilence again at Sunderland or in the Thames.

If once landed, whither would it march? To the haunts for which it has most affinity, where human beings are packed together with as saving an eye to space as Finns and Laplanders in their ice-bound huts—to densely-populated districts like Bethnal Green, St. Clement's, and St. Anne's, where artisans and beggars, sick and whole, the dying and babes just born, are squeezed into rooms in which separation is impossible, and all the decencies and comforts of life are alike banished—to every spot, in short, in town or country, where drainage, sewerage, and ventilation are neglected. What adequate provisions have we made against its advance? Have

we not left the first duty of domestic life in worse than its primitive state? Have we not been acting like the foolish birds that foul their own nests? Did not the Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans, learn to drain their towns and supply them with water for bathing as well as for drinking in a manner that puts our boasted advancement to shame? Do not the remains found in Peru and Mexico prove that the people of those lands in ancient times had cities better provided with water and sewerage than ours? Yet on such supplies how much depends! Where these are defective, health is inevitably enfeebled, squalid misery increased, and the blood predisposed to yield with fatal readiness to any morbid agency. Of this all medical men are fully aware, but their warnings are often heeded too late. In a letter on the spread of typhus in the *Times* of Good Friday last, Dr. Jeaffreson says:—"I have no doubt that a firm administration of sanitary regulations, such as compelling landlords to empty, clean, lime-white, and supply an adequate amount of water to infected houses, would diminish by at least three-fourths the amount of typhus in London." But there are other causes besides bad drainage and sewerage which contribute to the growth of disease. Certain districts in the capital are at this moment frightfully overcrowded in consequence of local and, we may hope, temporary circumstances. Father Thames has warned us through our nostrils, and not in vain. The present extension of the main drainage system is the result of his friendly appeal, but we ought now to turn our attention to other evils which threaten to retard the improvement of the homes of the people. Happily they are incidental, and spring from what is on the whole a good.

Hundreds of houses are being destroyed, and tens of hundreds of occupants evicted. Railways are intersecting London in every direction, and eager speculators would, if all their schemes were approved, give a map of it, on which these lines should be marked, the appearance of a cobweb. Many of the proposed railways would have no chance of success before a committee of the House of Commons; but many, on the other hand, would be considered favourable to London traffic. They would sweep away piles of buildings unfit to be inhabited, and thus do permanent good; but, at the same time, they would drive multitudes from their homes, compel them to seek shelter in some overpeopled vicinity, and thus do temporary harm. Personal inspection only can give an adequate idea of the wretchedness of some of these highly-rented dwellings; and it may be doubted whether the Russian peasant, who sleeps from year to year in his schube, or sheep-skin, on the bare floor, is not more to be envied than many a wayfaring Englishman who turns aside to sojourn for a night in the heart of the metropolis of civilization.

Besides new railways, another cause of evictions on a large scale is the construction of extensive shops, workshops, and warehouses. Old-established businesses assume gigantic proportions, and swallow up smaller trading. Property in the City is too valuable to be used for habitation. Owners of shops let out the upper part of their premises as offices, and, when the lucrative labours of the day are done, retire, by railway or omnibus, to suburban villas. Hence the house-room available for the poor is diminished, and as the needy artizan must live near his work, there follows the crowding into narrow spaces, dear, noxious, and foul. The magnificent improvements made of late years in the city of Paris have excited among us little emulation, yet they have produced some self-respect and self-interest also, have quickened us in some degree to widen old streets or to build new ones. All this, though an immense advantage on the whole, gives rise to much annoyance and suffering at the time. If provision could be made beforehand for those who are to be driven from their homes by such changes, all would be well. But this has not been attempted; and many of the houseless poor have been fain to sleep on the cold stones under porticoes, and sigh for the comforts accorded to their employer's horse. We read with pity of the Libyans, who dwelt, some in houses of salt, and others in tents of asphodel bound with rushes, but there are numbers near our doors to whom such abodes would be palaces—numbers on whom modern improvements inflict the punishment formerly attached to high treason in France, and strip the roof from over their heads, or raze their dwellings to the ground. Vestries too and district boards, under the Local Metropolis Management Act, are constantly dislodging the poor in consequence of representations made by medical officers. But the refugees, who are expelled from this court, betake themselves to that alley, where the process is ere long renewed, till the most helpless, hunted from place to place like outcasts or pariahs, seek only a hole where they may gather up their weary limbs, and bury their sorrows and disgust at human cruelty in the dust.

of death. If, when a bill is about to be sanctioned by Parliament for an improvement in our public buildings, or the construction of a new railway line through the metropolis, a philanthropic member urges the necessity of providing homes for the poor, whom these measures will evict, he is told that the Government has something else to do besides turning landlords of lodging-houses or embarking in building speculations. Nay, an Attorney-General has been heard to remind such gentlemen that theirs is "merely a sentimental view of the subject." Thus the sentimentality of housing the homeless is shifted by the Legislature on the shoulders of individuals, who, happening to be amiably eccentric, form themselves into societies such as that which was chartered in 1845, and erected near the Old St. Pancras Church the first pile of buildings for the industrious classes, at the cost of £16,000—a noble design, by which comfortable rooms may be hired at moderate rents. Another society purchased freehold or leasehold property in densely-populated neighbourhoods, put them in repair, and let them out at a less rental than elsewhere in the same vicinity. This was also a work of true charity, but too often little appreciated. Long habits of squalor and crowded living have so inured many of the lower orders to an atmosphere morally and materially corrupt, that they have lost all desire for better lodging.

The poorest must be raised from degradation, if at all, by slow degrees, and for the more sober and orderly, Mr. Moffatt's plan, proposed three-and-twenty years ago, still remains to be put in operation. We need at this moment, a hundred-fold more than we did in 1842, suburban villages, provided with lines of residences for the London poor, and constructed with proper attention to drainage and ventilation. Such buildings might be raised by companies, and prove a good commercial speculation, if arrangements were made with the railway authorities to convey the artisans who should tenant them to and from town every day, at convenient hours. Nothing can be conceived more likely to promote their health and comfort, as well as that of their families. To us in general it would be a great boon, since it would lessen that increasing aggregation of human lives in our central districts, from which so much misery and disease is to be apprehended. The success of the Temperance Building Society and National Freehold Land Society is a guarantee against its failure, if fairly tried. The occupants of houses thus situated would be far more accessible to pastoral influences than ever they could be in the City, and the Sabbath would be to them indeed a day of rest when the sound of the church-going bell would be wafted to them over sparkling rivers and green fields. The "sentimental" view of the subject would unite with the practical, and the plan, regarded morally or physically, would be a gain and a triumph. The railways, by co-operating in it, would achieve their highest utility; and the tired artisan, by "shaking to all the liberal air the dust and din and steam of town," would become, we may hope and believe, a better member of society and a healthier parent of artisans as yet unborn.

OUR UNIVERSITY LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE.

THE result of the boat-race has, of course, considerably disgusted Cambridge men in general, and it is probable that some attempt will be made to remodel the scheme which at present obtains for the choice and training of the University crew. The *Pall Mall Gazette* gave a useful suggestion in an article on the race, which the authorities of the Boat Club would do well to consider; the writer advising that as cricket clubs hire professionals to teach them cricket, so the University Boat Club should hire a thorough waterman, and put their best men to row behind him, and so learn if possible a winning stroke. This year they had undoubtedly material to win the race, and it is to be hoped that by this, or some other device, they will next year have a style worthy of their material. It is to be hoped, also, that the University will not lose confidence in Mr. Lawes, who is quite equal to rowing stroke in even a much better boat than Cambridge sent this year to Putney. The defeat was the more trying in Cambridge, from the fact that the telegraph announced a clever victory over Oxford by two lengths, and the news was so far believed that bets were paid and flags of triumph hoisted.

The *Times*, in its remarks on the race, renewed the old story of favouritism in the choice of the crew, but the general verdict of Cambridge men will condemn such suggestions. There was an amusing commentary on this sort of accusation in the earliest days of the late University boat. The "trial eights" had the usual race, and an Emmanuel man rowed stroke of the winning boat, and yet he was not selected by the Captain of the Boat Club to take the same place—or any place—in the ultimate crew. Thereupon an angry letter appeared in the Cambridge papers, asserting that the favour shown to Eton was too barefaced, and that Mr. Lawes was chosen in preference to the stroke of the successful "trial eight,"

only because he was an Eton man. The letter was disposed of by a quiet statement to the effect that as Mr. Lawes and his rival were both Eton men, the accusation of Eton favouritism could scarcely be allowed to hold.

The Rectory of Ovington, in the gift of the University, is now vacant. The value, as given in the *Clergy List*, is £415, but the living is worth rather more than that; and, as it is in a healthy situation, near Watton, in Norfolk, there will probably be a large number of candidates for it. The late Rector was formerly a Fellow of St. John's, and held the living for fifty-three years. It is dangerous to mention the names of candidates, as it is not always possible to give an exhaustive list, but the following are already announced:—Mr. C. J. Evans, of King's, Curate at St. Edward's; Mr. C. H. Crosse, of Caius, a well-known "poll-coach," who has served a curacy near Cambridge; Mr. Turing, of Trinity, one of the chaplains of that college; and Mr. Duke, of Caius, Curate to Mr. Clayton, at Trinity Church. The list would have been larger if the vacancy had occurred during term time, and it will most probably be considerably extended before the day for voting arrives.

Attention is now being called to the necessity for doing something towards supplying the general demand for curates. A large per-cent of incumbents seem to pass their time in doing nothing else but search for young men to fill their curacies, and the search is very often a hopeless one. With fewer prizes than ever before them, curates are more determined than ever not to "bury" themselves in places that "lead to nothing," and that is a difficulty which an increased numerical supply of men will scarcely remove. However, such an increase will be a step in the right direction, and one or two schemes are under consideration, which it is hoped may secure the desired result. A proposal which finds favour with some is "a cheap college" in one of the Universities, and the supporters of this scheme persuade themselves that men thus educated will receive the full benefit of a University training, without being called upon to encounter the wonted cost. It is difficult to understand how this can be the case. As things now are, the necessary expenses of living are cut down to a minimum at several colleges in the University, and it is a question whether the most rigid economy could reduce such expenses by more than a pound or two in the course of the year. Other expenses are, of course, in men's own hands, and consist chiefly of subscriptions to boat clubs, and cricket clubs, and so on,—speaking now of the most economical class of students. If these expenses are cut down in the "cheap college," its inmates will certainly not derive the full benefits of a University training, for a mental education without a corresponding discipline in the way of bodily athletics will not turn out "University men." A correspondent of the *Guardian* says that "in order to elevate and enoble its inmates, such a college should have a more religious tone about all its arrangements than is to be found in existing establishments;" but there can be little doubt that a combination of "religion" with "cheapness" would be the most unfortunate thing for the general interests of the former in the University at large that could possibly be devised. The other, and by far the better scheme, is understood to have originated with the Regius Professor of Divinity in Oxford, and the Hulsean Professor in Cambridge. They propose that a subscription list should be formed for the purpose of supplying private help to deserving men, who without such help could not obtain a University education. Any one who has been engaged in school work must know how many excellent men there are who are forced into mercantile or professional life because they cannot provide the money necessary for carrying out their real desire for a University education as a preliminary to clerical life. If it were known that assistance could be obtained for such men, the masters of schools would be able to recommend a sufficient number of promising pupils each year to the trustees of the fund, and the only persons who need know anything about it would be those personally concerned in the receiving or the adjudging of the grants. Men whose incomes were thus supplemented could enter at any of the quieter colleges, and take their place with their fellow-undergraduates, and receive all the advantages of a University education. There is no doubt that by this means a large amount of earnestness would be introduced among the men who serve curacies. Considering the vast amount which is given in charity, and the readiness with which any call for a good object is responded to by a certain somewhat limited class, it may be considered certain that an appreciable effect would very speedily be produced upon the supply of eligible curates. An income of £15,000 would enable the trustees to grant £100 a year to 150 young men—that is, to send up fifty men every year to the Universities.

A curious example of the interference of conflicting Graces has been discovered, and the remedy was applied at the last Congregation. On May 20, 1858, it was determined that men who had obtained honours in the Moral or Natural Sciences' Tripos might present themselves as candidates for honours in the next Law Tripos, the interval between the two Triposes amounting to a good half-year. But on February 23, 1860, the time for the Moral and Natural Sciences' Tripos was changed from the Lent Term to the close of the October Term, when the Law Tripos Examination was also held, by which arrangement the permission of 1858 was nullified. An additional year has now been granted, under certain limitations, to candidates for Law Honours.

The Syndicate appointed to consider the B.A. and Previous Examinations, as well as the improvement of Theological Education in the University, have taken in good part the signal rejection of

their proposed Matriculation Examination on the 23rd of March, and announce that they have set to work upon a scheme of examinations which they hope to submit to the Senate before the 1st of June next. A Grace passed the Senate at the last Congregation, granting the necessary extension of the period of their powers, which would otherwise have expired at the end of the Lent Term.

To continue the remarks of my last letter on the Church movement in Cambridge, which I see quoted *in extenso* in the *Cambridge Chronicle*. A more frequent celebration of the Eucharist has become so usual—almost universal—throughout the kingdom, that even in college chapels a movement in that direction has been made or attempted. At St. John's, where so many improvements are now being made, there is a weekly celebration; and at another of the large colleges something of the kind would probably be accomplished, if it were not for the feeling that the style in which the celebration is there conducted already prevents the attendance of the men who would make the greatest use of more frequent opportunities. A bare "twice a term" is certainly behind the spirit of the age, and it may some time strike the Cambridge Branch of the English Church Union as an excellent method of throwing off a little of its superfluous energy, to have one of the rubrics at the end of the Communion Service printed as a handbill, and posted on the walls and in the windows of the town:—"In cathedral and collegiate churches, and colleges, where there are many priests and deacons, they shall all receive the Communion with the priest every Sunday at the least, except they have a reasonable cause to the contrary." It is hoped that the noble chapel which St. John's is now building will move Trinity to rebuild its own chapel, for, however striking the interior spectacle may be at the evening service on Sunday, the external effect of the building is, to say the least, unfortunate as seen from the street. There seems to be some question whether the massive tower, which Mr. Henry Hoare's munificence has tempted St. John's to substitute for Mr. Scott's elegant spire, will, after all, be any improvement to the chapel.

There is a prospect of a great work being done in St. Michael's Church, if sufficient funds can be raised. Mr. Holman Hunt has undertaken to conduct the pictorial decoration of the walls of the church, and a sum of about £1,500 will be required in order to carry out his designs satisfactorily. The church affords ample scope for the artist, and it is very much to be hoped that the decoration will be accomplished. The parishioners are desirous to forward the work, and the Master and Seniors of Trinity College, who are the patrons, have abundant means at their disposal. The aisles of the chancel formerly served as chapels to the students of Michael House, of Trinity College, and of Gonville and Caius College, and the building itself is ascribed to Hervey de Stanton, the founder of Michael House in 1324, so that the proposed decorations should have an interest for a large number of University men. The lofty west wall, and the pier arches of the nave, are unusually well fitted for Mr. Hunt's chaste pencil. So far, Mr. Hunt has expressed an intention of painting subject-pictures on the north and south walls of the chancel, and single figures over the chancel arches, with a subject-picture on the east wall of the north aisle.

THE "LONDON REVIEW" CHURCH COMMISSION.

NO. III.—DIOCESE OF SALISBURY (*continued*).

PERHAPS there is no diocese in England in which the towns show fewer distinctive features than that of Salisbury. With some exceptions, all of any importance are situated in purely agricultural districts, and their traffic is generally confined to the requirements of the landowners, gentry, and farmers surrounding them. Dorchester and Salisbury, in fact, may be quoted as samples of the whole. The market-towns present a scene of great bustle and excitement on their market-days, and of singular quiet on others. Weymouth, Bournemouth, and the coast-towns, certainly differ somewhat from the others inland; but, viewed in relation to the question especially before us, not to an extent which claims particular notice. We may, therefore, before coming to other dioceses which will furnish more materials for comment, conclude in this paper what we have to say in general of the diocese of Salisbury, reserving some facts which may be more suitably dealt with at a future opportunity.

In our journey through the diocese, our attention was frequently attracted to the excellent order and repair of the churches, and the picturesque appearance of the parsonages and schools. This was the more noticeable, as in some of the districts we visited there were evidently among the inhabitants many poor and but few rich, yet their places of worship and their schools seemed equally as well cared for as those in much wealthier localities. In the course of our rambles, we frequently met with instances which tended to confirm us in our belief that the want of liberality in Church matters on the part of a large proportion of our aristocracy and moneyed classes arises

rather from that virtue not having been called into action, either by the teaching of ministers of religion or the stimulus occasioned by personal knowledge of the want of sufficient church accommodation, than to any defect of natural generosity.

It appears that we have given offence by the charge contained in our last number, that the aristocracy are wanting in liberality in their support of Church movements. We have not undertaken this inquiry without feeling that we shall often provoke the anger of some of our readers, and that it will even be our duty to do so. In making this charge we did not speak without good reason, nor is it a whit the less true because many instances of noble generosity may be found in the ranks of the aristocracy. We freely admit these instances; but they form the exception, not the rule. Let us cite a single case in proof of our position. We all know how long the present Bishop of London has been impressing on the wealthier portion of the population of the metropolis the necessity of contributing to his fund for the building and endowment of churches; yet the amount he has received, in proportion to the wealth of the area from which it has been contributed, is of the most trifling description. That abundant liberality is latent among our aristocracy, we are perfectly ready to admit; but the Church, as a body, seems unable to develop it. Even the exceptional instances of munificence to which we have alluded, seem rather due to the fact that the donor's sympathies have been roused by personal observation, or by the judicious application of some clergyman on the spot, than to that *habit* of charity which we especially expect from men of rank and wealth.

In the diocese of Salisbury we found several of these exceptional cases, but our space will not permit us to cite more than two or three. The first we will mention is that of the church at Wilton, built at the entire expense of the late Lord Herbert of Lea. Certainly, here is a specimen of liberality well worthy of a member of the British aristocracy. On the building and ornamentation alone, we were informed, he had expended no less a sum than £40,000. Another example, equally honourable, may be found in the Abbey Church, at Sherbourne. This beautiful specimen of mediæval ecclesiastical architecture has from time to time been exposed to such peril and accident that it is almost a miracle it has survived them. In the time of the Commonwealth especially, it ran great risk of demolition, for not only did the soldiers of Cromwell devastate and plunder it at their discretion, but they applied it moreover to purposes utterly antagonistic not only to the spirit of worship, but to the safety of the building itself. Among other facts tending to substantiate this assertion, there is in the parish register of the year 1645 the following entry:—"Paid for drying a barrel of gunpowder in the vestry and setting four hoops on the barrel—3s."

Although after the Restoration more care was taken of the Abbey Church, still it appears to have gradually decayed from the want of needful temporary repairs, till the year 1828, when its condition became positively dangerous. Indeed, we find from the report of the architect, "that two of the great tower piers had given way, the flying buttresses of the choir had sunk so far as to be useless; and as the end of the tie-beams had decayed, the wall had moved outwardly several inches, and the crown of the choir-vault had dropped in consequence full seven inches, leaving a frightful series of fissures in the ribs, besides other damages equally deplorable." A further proof of the insecure state of the building showed itself during service one Sunday, by the falling of one of the ribs from the roof, fortunately without injuring anyone. At last, in the year 1848, a meeting was called by the vicar, for the purpose of taking into consideration what steps should be adopted for the repair of the church, and a committee was appointed to collect subscriptions. The inhabitants of the town and surrounding neighbourhood contributed very generously, but the liberality of the late Earl of Digby, the lord of the manor and impropriator of the great tithes, surpassed all the rest. He gave three separate donations to the fund, the first of £4,500, the second of £2,170, and the third of £600. The liberality of the Digby family did not stop even there. Great as had been the contributions of the Earl to the repairs of the church, a large sum was still required to complete them. At last a special vestry was called by the vicar and churchwardens, at which, to the great joy of the parishioners, it was announced that Mr. Digby Wingfield Digby, who had then succeeded to the manor of Sherbourne, desired to take upon himself the completion of the restoration of the church at his own cost, thus incurring an expenditure far in excess of the very liberal donations of his uncle, the late Earl. It must not, however, be imagined that the generosity of the Digby family was restricted to the restoration of the church. They have been

large contributors to the school building, and, in fact, to every useful as well as charitable undertaking in the town and neighbourhood.

Passing to Wimborne, we find that the Minster, one of the most ancient and interesting ecclesiastical foundations in the kingdom, has, through the indefatigable exertions of the Rev. Charles Onslow, one of the three clergymen attached to it, been restored, at an expense of £10,211. This sum does not embrace the cost of several memorial stained-glass windows of great beauty. The two transepts of the Minster, we regret to find, still remain to be repaired. Again, the Wimborne Grammar School (the foundation of Queen Elizabeth) has, since its re-establishment in 1851, under the scheme of the Court of Chancery settled in 1848, started on a fresh career of usefulness. The Charity Commissioners, so frequently censured, merit every praise for the footing on which this school is now placed. Its income is £2,500 a year. Of this sum, the three clergymen attached to the Minster receive £250 each per annum, and the remainder is divided amongst the masters of the school, sixteen choristers, and the organist.

To speak of the diocese of Salisbury without mentioning the name of Lord Shaftesbury would be a great omission; for, independent of the high position which he holds in one section of the religious world, a large portion of his property lies in this diocese. An impression seems to obtain in some quarters that he limits his benefactions there to the evangelical members of the Church of England. But people upon the spot give him credit for a larger liberality, as the members of the Dissenting denominations, the Wesleyans especially, can testify. It is indeed possible that, as a landlord, he somewhat too much inclines to favour those of his tenantry who are regular in their attendance at church and who send their children to the schools. Such at least we found to be the opinion of some persons with whom we conversed; but the charge is not a serious one even if it is well founded. No needful work fails to receive his assistance. He subscribed £50 towards the repairs of the Minster of Wimborne, and he has promised a handsome donation for the restoration of the two transepts whenever the neighbouring gentry come forward with contributions towards the same work.

It would be ungracious, while speaking of the benefactions of living men, to forget the generosity of one who, though deceased, survives in the grateful memory of the diocese, and deservedly—the late Sir Richard Glynn of Gaunt's House. Though he was utterly without ostentation in the distribution of his charities, still enough is known to render a few instances worthy of mention. During more than a quarter of a century before his death it was his custom to distribute before the winter set in about £500 worth of flannel, in pieces of not less than six yards each, as well as coal and food, to the poor of all denominations without distinction of creed. It is also well known that the legacies bequeathed to old servants, who grew infirm in his employment, amount to about £300 per annum. But it would require a volume to enumerate all his good works; and even that would not suffice, as a very large proportion of his pecuniary charities were paid by cheque, in order that they might not be known to any but the recipient and himself.

Sherbourne contains many valuable charities, all of which appear to be managed with justice and discretion, and of which, perhaps, the almshouse is the most important. The original charter provides for twenty poor brethren, who were to be called, "the Masters of St. John's House," with a "Perpetual Priest," whose duty it was to pray for the souls of the inmates. The numbers now admitted are sixteen poor men and eight poor women. They are received into the house on their own petition, and they are expected to take an oath that they will be content to live on the alms they receive, and do no manner of work for hire.

In Sherbourne there is also an endowed grammar-school of considerable celebrity, founded by Edward VI. Nearly the whole of the domestic buildings formerly belonging to the abbey are now appropriated to the use of this school, which, in common with all other public buildings in the town, is kept in the most perfect order. It would, in fact, be difficult to praise too highly the arrangements and care taken of the whole buildings connected directly or indirectly with the Abbey Church. Before quitting the subject, we cannot refrain from quoting from a remarkably well written little work on the Abbey Church, by the Rev. Edward Harston, M.A., a singular document found imbedded in one of the walls of the vicarage when undergoing some repairs. It is supposed to relate to the sweating sickness which devastated the country in the reign of

Henry VII., and tends to show how little was sanitary science understood in those days:—

"Be hyt knownen to alle Crystyn men and wymmen that oure holy fadir the Pope hath very knowlyche by revelacioun whate medycyne is for the siknys that rayneth nowe a monge the peple. Yu any wyse when that ye hyryth of this bull, furste sey in the worschup of God, of oure Lady and Seynte Martyne, iij. Pater noster, iij. Ave and a Crede, and the morrow after medately hyre ye youre masse of Seynte Martyne, and the masse whyle sey ye the sawter of our lady, and geue one offryng to Seynte Martyne, whate that ever ye wille, and promyse ye to faste onys a yere yn brede an watyr, whiles that ye lyve, othir sum othir person for you. And he that belyyyth not on this, stondythe in the sentenc of holy Church, for hit hath be prechyd at Powol's Crosse."

In no town which we visited in the diocese does there appear an ampler amount of church and chapel accommodation than in Sherbourne, especially when the number of the inhabitants, which scarcely exceeds 5,500, is taken into consideration. The poor also appear well cared for, physically and morally, and the clergy energetically perform their duty. We would willingly take leave of Sherbourne without one depreciatory remark on its clergy, if that were possible. But we are obliged to state that a great breach, or, at any rate, a great coolness, appears to exist between them and the Dissenters; and this is the more to be regretted, as the latter do not appear to have contributed to this state of feeling by any provocation on their part. As in most other towns, however, where the Protestant clergy are active, and exist in numbers proportionate to the lay population, the Roman Catholics certainly gain no ground whatever; and in Sherbourne, it should be borne in mind, most of the clergy are strongly attached to High Church principles.

To those who have signalized themselves in the diocese of Salisbury by acts of generosity, we must add the Marquis of Westminster. We do so the more willingly because this nobleman's name is seldom associated with works of benevolence in the metropolis. He stands, indeed, in singular contrast with himself—for, while he is lavish in the temporal and spiritual care of the poor on his estates at Motcombe, he is either indifferent to the seething mass of vice and misery in the immediate vicinity of his estates in Westminster, or his charity is paralyzed by its magnitude. Whichever view we take of his inaction in the latter locality, it cannot be said that either is satisfactory; nor can we regard his case as one of those in which benevolence is latent, and only awaits some stirring appeal to call it forth. If the overcrowding, the want, and the demoralization which lie at his door in Westminster do not constitute a sufficient appeal, it would be difficult to say what does. It cannot be said that he is powerless to mitigate these evils, for his wealth is almost unlimited. Yet they have existed and they do exist without, as far as we have been able to discover, any attempt on his part worthy of mention to abate them. In the country, however, the kindness and liberality of the Marquis of Westminster to all around him deserve the highest praise. It is singular to contrast the opinions pronounced on him in Motcombe and its vicinity with those spread abroad about him in London. It would hardly be thought possible that they could relate to the same man, so different are they in their tone. A visit to the neighbourhood of his estate would well repay all who are interested in the welfare of the agricultural poor, and the true method by which the lord of the soil may elicit the love and respect of his tenants and dependants. Not only have all the farm houses on his estate been rebuilt, but all the labourers' cottages as well. The latter are generally semi-detached, and were built at an average cost of from £350 to £400 the pair. To each cottage there is attached an appropriate extent of garden ground. It may perhaps be imagined by those who judge of the noble lord from what they may have heard of him in London, that buildings of the kind would command a choice of tenants, and that the expenditure invested in the rebuilding of the cottages might after all yield a fair amount of interest; but that would be a most unjust inference. He has, on the contrary, done his work in the purest spirit of benevolence, and this is proved by the fact that each of the tenants of these cottages pay a rental of only £5 per annum, a sum utterly insignificant when the amount of capital invested is taken into consideration. The Marquis, we were told, has rebuilt the church of Fonthill at his own expense. He has likewise defrayed the whole cost of rebuilding the church at Motcombe, as well as the schools both for boys and girls, which he also supports. The town of Shaftesbury, with its market-house, has been nearly reconstructed at his expense in the course of the last ten years. Indeed, it would be difficult to quote an instance in which the duties of a large landholder are more con-

scientiously performed than by the noble lord on his estates in the country, or where a better example is set to the ladies of the surrounding neighbourhood in the care taken of the poor by the marchioness and the lady members of her family. Another excellent lesson may be learnt from the manner in which these estates are conducted, and that is the gratitude with which English agricultural labourers repay those who show themselves interested in their welfare. Not in one single instance did we hear the noble lord and his family spoken of but in terms of the greatest respect and good feeling.

From the examples we have quoted, and we might add others, it will be seen that the same individuals who refuse to subscribe an additional thousand pounds to restore their magnificent cathedral, are capable of giving in the most open-handed manner whenever the necessity for their generosity is brought before them either by the sight of the work requiring their aid, or the judicious application of some minister of religion with whom they are personally acquainted.

One of the questions which we especially propose to examine in the course of this inquiry is whether the poor are more benefited by living on estates held by large landholders, or in districts where property is more subdivided. In the diocese of Salisbury, we can unhesitatingly say that much more care is bestowed in providing for the comforts of the labourer upon large estates than upon small ones. The proof of this is seen in many ways: in the manner in which the schools are maintained, in the encouragement given to the pupils, and the assistance rendered to the poor in the time of their distress, as well as in the sympathy shown to the aged. But by far the greatest proof is to be found in the rebuilding and maintenance of the labourers' cottages. We have already mentioned the liberality of the Marquis of Westminster in this respect. In the northern division of the county, the Marquis of Ailesbury is equally energetic and benevolent. Again, the cottages on the estate of the young Earl of Pembroke, at Wilton, are not only replete with comfort and convenience for the tenants, but their elevations might serve as models for rural architecture. At the present time, all the more enlightened landowners appear anxious to place the dwellings of their labourers on a better footing, and this desire we noticed throughout the diocese, both in Wilts and Dorset. True, even at the present time, much remains to be done in both counties; but those who have not visited them for the last ten years would be struck with the great reformation that has taken place in this respect. But comfort, cleanliness, space, and good ventilation are not the only advantages gained by this change. One half the immorality of which agricultural labourers have been justly accused arose from their small and crowded dwellings. Formerly, in Wilts and Dorset, it was no uncommon occurrence to find not only the adult and juvenile branches of the same family, male and female, sleeping in the same room, but very frequently a male lodger, or possibly a man and his wife, as well. In all this, there is a great change for the better. Instances of overcrowding may be found even at the present day, but they are of rare occurrence compared with the state of things which existed a dozen years since. This is in every respect a gratifying change, and one which is fully appreciated by the poor families. Upon none does the over-crowding of tenements in agricultural districts, such as Wilts and Dorset, act more painfully than upon the wives of the labourers—a large proportion of whom have formerly been respectable domestic servants, and have lived in families where the decencies of life have been observed with all the care for which the English respectable classes are so celebrated. To such women, until use has deadened them to their new mode of life, the obligation to live in over-crowded cottages must have been inexpressibly painful; and the eagerness they show to obtain more respectable accommodation, and the care they take of a new-built commodious cottage when they are fortunate enough to obtain such a boon, proves it.

We were also happy to find that some improvement has begun to take place in the minds of farmers and small landowners with regard to the advantage of having the labourer domiciled near them. The practice in this district of destroying the cottages of labourers, and driving them into other parishes, in order to improve the value of land by lessening the poor's-rate in that from which they were ejected, has been carried on in different parts of the country to an enormous extent, and has had a most unjust and injurious effect, not only on the poor, but upon the poor rate-payers. In Wilts and Dorset its action is most conspicuous. These counties, although containing so many of the aristocracy, are really the two poorest in England. An equalized poor's-rate over the whole diocese would amount to 2s. 4d. in the pound on the schedule A

property-tax assessment. How great is its poverty may be easily understood by comparing the sum required for the relief of the poor with that of Lancashire and Shropshire in the worst periods of the cotton famine. In the latter counties a rate of 2s. 4d. in the pound on the property-tax assessment would have maintained the whole of those thrown out of employ, and the ordinary poor as well, without any appeal whatever to the general charity of the country. But, although great poverty exists in Wilts and Dorset, the manner in which the poor's-rate is raised for its relief is of the most unfair and oppressive description. On looking over some Parliamentary returns we find that about three years since the rate in Wiltshire ranged from 1s. 2d. in the pound to 13s., and, as usual, the poorer the parish and the less the ability of the ratepayer, the heavier was the amount he was compelled to pay. Nor did this state of things arise from the natural congregating together of the poor; on the contrary, in by far the larger majority of cases it was caused by the destruction of labourers' cottages in the wealthier parishes, the poorer parishes becoming still poorer with every fresh accession of immigrants. Some few years since, when on a visit to Trowbridge, in Wilts, we found the poor's-rate to be 6s. in the pound, although there was not at the time one able-bodied pauper properly belonging to the town on the parish books. All were agricultural labourers out of work, who could find no cottage accommodation on the surrounding farms, and who were daily obliged when in work to walk several miles to and fro to the farmer employing them. For this state of things the clergy of the diocese in the last generation, when the systematic destruction of labourers' cottages first began, cannot be held guiltless. The poor and their welfare are especially under the guardianship of the Church, and had the clergy then stepped forward in a body and boldly protested against the iniquity of the practice, it would certainly not have been continued. But not a voice of any power was raised against it.

A bill is now before Parliament for the purpose of equalizing the poor's-rate over unions, which, if it passes into law, will have an immense effect not only in putting a stop to the practice of demolishing cottages in localities where it still continues, but in re-establishing the dwellings of the labourer in the immediate vicinity of his work. Nothing will then be gained in large unions by driving the poor into another parish. On the contrary, the farmer will find it a great advantage to have his labourers within a short distance of his own dwelling. A system of union rating, combined with the recent reform in the poor-law, which gave a settlement after three years' residence, will have the effect of placing the labourer in a far more independent position towards his employer. A short time ago the poor-law acted most tyrannically on the agricultural population. In the metropolis and large cities the artizan or the domestic servant could, on falling out with his employer or after temporary loss of character, find occupation in another part of the same parish, where he was unknown, and where his individuality was lost in the multitude who surrounded him. But with the agricultural labourer it was very different. He had probably lived since his boyhood in the small community of his village, where every face was known to the rest. As long as he conducted himself respectably he was liked, but his first error generally clung to him through life. He might have quarrelled with the squire or offended the rector of the parish by attending some dissenting place of worship where religious doctrines were preached contrary to those entertained by the incumbent. He might have knocked over a hare or snared a pheasant, and been imprisoned for his crime; or he might, when inspired by over-indulgence at the beer-shop, have challenged the son of the farmer employing him to fight; or have been guilty of some other fault unpardonable according to the code of rural discipline. If to redeem his character he sought employment in another county, as soon as distress obliged him to apply to the parish authorities for assistance he was sure to be sent back under charge of a constable to his native village. Here the recollection of his old offence would encounter him, and he would search for employment in vain, unless he was willing to accept the offer of reduced wages from some needy farmer, who was inclined to turn to his own account the stain on the man's character. Of course he must accept it, especially if married, and thus the lives of many labourers were rendered miserable. If the bill for union rating becomes law, this evil will in a great measure be obviated. The agricultural unions are generally very large, and the labourer might be able to obtain employment at a short distance from his own parish, without any very great impediment being thrown in his way from the action of the law of settlement, or the opposition of the parochial authorities.

We regret exceedingly to find that in the diocese of

Salisbury the wages of the agricultural labourer range so low as from eight to nine shillings a week. The peasantry, indeed, as a rule, appear healthy, and are not in rags. It is much to their credit that with such small earnings they manage to maintain so respectable an appearance. By what privations, sternly endured, they accomplish this feat, our readers will not find it difficult to imagine. It says much for their independence of spirit and for their self-denial, that they are able to support existence and keep up any show of respectability upon such wages. A man and his wife, with two children, live, at this rate, on a much smaller allowance than they would cost the parish if they came upon its funds. We have heard it frequently doubted that the wage paid to the agricultural labourer could be as small as we have stated it, but we found by every inquiry we made that it was the fact. One farmer, it is true, told us that several of his men earned as much as eleven or twelve shillings a week; but, on questioning him, we found that they did this on piecework, and that they worked longer and harder than the average. We may well be proud of a peasantry who, with such means, are able to fight the battle of life. It would not be difficult to find within a radius of a few hundred yards from the Houses of Parliament, more genuine distress and privation than could be found in the two poor counties comprised in the diocese of Salisbury, in spite of their poverty. But let us give the credit of this state of things where it is due. Political economists may tell us that in the agricultural labour-market, as in all others, the question of wages is regulated by the law of demand and supply. It may be so; no doubt it is so: and we must wait for a higher and more Christian civilization before it can be otherwise. Meantime we must maintain that it is neither a Christian nor an enlightened economy which condemns honest industry to live upon the lowest wage compatible with a bare existence.

Whatever objections the clergy may make to Dissent, and however coldly they may behave to Dissenting ministers, they certainly play the good Samaritan admirably in their parishes without the slightest distinction as to creed. In no case is this more seen than when a clergyman attends the sick and assists the parish doctor in administering medical comforts, in addition to his own spiritual consolations. In this the married parochial clergy—and most of the incumbents are married—are generally most efficiently assisted by their wives. Indeed, such assistance is invaluable, especially of those ladies who confine their ministrations principally to acts of charity, leaving doctrinal points to their husbands. The good to be done by a clergyman's wife, if an active and intelligent woman, in a poor Wilts or Dorset village, is incalculable. She acts as the point of continuity between her husband and the sick child or lying-in woman, discovering what requisites, clothes, or comforts are really wanting in the case, which it would be impossible for any clergyman to do single-handed, however well disposed and energetic he may be. It would be a curious subject for inquiry how far the co-operation of the clergyman's wife increases his power of doing good, both physically and morally, and what, in relation to the poor, are the advantages of a married over a celibate clergy. We believe they would be found to be very great. The general impression we received of the exertions of the wives of the rural clergy was that the value of their ministrations is not sufficiently taken into account by the religious world, and that they do not in general receive the credit due to them from the public at large.

In conclusion, we may remark that the Roman Catholics do not appear to make any progress in the diocese of Salisbury, although they have made several very energetic attempts. The small Roman Catholic population which we found in Wiltshire and Dorsetshire were generally, though poor, of a highly moral and respectable class; indeed, we met with none more so. Their schools, their kindness to children, and their attention to their sick, seem to be their dominant features. Their schools, however, we regret to say, do not appear to be maintained by the wealthy of their creed as they deserve to be. One fact more we may mention, as it bears out our view that the Roman Catholic faith does not gain more ground where High Church practices are observed, than in the neighbourhood of any other form of Protestant worship; and that is, that a very large proportion of the clergy of the diocese of Salisbury are well known to be strong advocates of the High Church form of service.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Received:—G. C.; J. R.; J. K. S.; H. B.; A. M. D.; An Old Subscriber, Salisbury; Clericus, M.A.; W. McC.

Some of these letters we may notice in our next number.

FINE ARTS.

THE FRENCH AND FLEMISH EXHIBITION.

THE exhibition of pictures by French and Flemish artists which has now been conducted so successfully to the twelfth year of its existence is always welcome, notwithstanding that it generally represents a certain class of painters, of the French school especially, who are quite as common-place and trite in their repetitions as many of our own school. They belong to that numerous family which has received the name of *genre* painters—a name more easily understood than explained, but which we take to mean chiefly that the subject is of less importance than the technical qualities. So that whether the artist sets himself to paint a family group with a cottage interior, as M. Edouard Frère does, or our Mr. Faed, or single figures of prettily dressed ladies or peasant girls, with animals, fruit, flowers, and other ornamental accessories which serve to display beauty of manipulation and colouring, his intention is to gratify the eye above all, and if the mind is touched so much the better. The majority of people who look at pictures are appealed to in this way, it suits their disposition to be pleased without being troubled with any exercise of the thoughts beyond the suggestion of the softer domestic sentiments. Hence the great preponderance of pretty pictures painted to perfection in this French and Flemish exhibition as much as in our own. But we should be doing some injustice to the painters of these schools if we were to regard this exhibition as entirely representative of them. Guided by the pictures contributed it might fairly be supposed that the French and Flemish painters more rarely attempt the higher walk of historic or dramatic incident than our artists do, as there is in only one work that can be considered in this category—the large picture of "Van Ursel Addressing the Armed Guilds of Antwerp" by M. Leys. But the reason for this absence of historical pictures is rather to be accounted for by the exhibition being a dealers' exhibition, the chief object of which must of necessity be commercial success. Probably if the artists were invited to contribute their works to the exhibition of the Academy, we should see that the line of historical painting, and the lesser one of historic incident, are at least as ably followed in France and Belgium as in England and Germany. It is well to bear this in mind in noticing the collection of pictures which are now offered to us every year by M. Gambart, the well-known French picture-dealer who has so long resided amongst us, and is so justly esteemed for his liberality and enterprise towards our own painters. The picture of M. Henry Leys already referred to is the most important for its aim and purpose as well as for the large scale upon which the painter has designed his work. It represents, after the peculiar manner adopted by M. Leys, the dense crowd of the citizens of Antwerp filling the old square in front of the town-hall, the front row being a line of the guilds, all armed in some rough-and-ready style of arms and armour. The burgomaster, in black and furred robe, is addressing Van Spanghen, the town-councillor, who stands in front of his men, and investing him with the command to defend the safety of the city against the Guelders under Martin Van Rossem. The time of the scene is 1542, and the artist, as is his wont, paints in the style of that period; his figures have faces and forms borrowed as much as possible from the pictures of the time, and the costumes are a most carefully studied feature. The appearance of the picture is very similar in its general stiffness and hard outline to the works of the time in painted glass or tapestry, the attitudes are almost precisely those which would be chosen by artists as little inclined to be graceful as Lucas Cranach or Roger Van der Weyden, who, however, lived a century before this time. The lighting of the picture is completely arbitrary and independent of all suns, and to be quite absolute, the painter has dispensed with all shadows, at least all which are cast from one figure upon another near it and upon the ground. The oddness of the effect is not accounted for until the spectator finds out that the figures are all deprived of their shadows—a liberty that cannot be taken with mortals under the sun. Why a painter of such unquestionable ability as M. Leys should assume to be realistic to such an extent in his work and yet be so utterly false and unnatural in one of the elementary points of painting is beyond comprehension. Our pre-Raphaelites were arbitrary and perverse enough in their mediæval crudities, but they studied nature, though it was through a glass of their own. If there are any directions in which modern art has advanced it is in lifelike representation, dramatic expression, and all that we call feeling in art; but the style adopted by M. Leys is one that belongs to a time in Flemish art when it was crippled by all kinds of defects, ignorances, and insusceptibilities. Pictures of this kind never possessed beauty. As historical examples of the art and as records they have a certain interest, but to revive this manner in these days is as absurd as if a poet were to write in black letter with the spelling of Chaucer.

It says very little for the state of the Belgian school that a painter with opinions like M. Leys should have pupils who affect very similar eccentricities. Here we have three pictures by M. Alma-Tadema going back for a subject, in a similar archaeological spirit, to a period no less remote than the ancient Egyptian. This artist paints the costumes of the museums, even to the horsehair wigs which he places on the heads of Egyptian gentlemen at an evening party at Nineveh, who are enjoying the performance of dancing girls in the drollest possible costumes. The picture is evidently misnamed in the catalogue, as the whole subject is Egyptian. Another strange production by the same artist is two ancient

Egyptians playing chess in the time of the 12th dynasty. There is just as much merit in these as in the pictures of M. Leys, and it is hard to say which has the nearest relationship to true art.

M. Lagye, another pupil of Baron Leys, though he paints with a rather sweeter pencil than his master, is still equally hard and formal in his work. (75) "A Christening at Antwerp," in the 15th century, shows us the family procession passing through the street, with the baby made up into a convenient parcel with embroidered quilt to be carried by the nurse, and the acolyte carrying a large lighted taper before her, the father and mother following, all the figures as lifeless as lay dummies of the studio, while the details of dress and buildings are painted to a hair. In a more sentimental subject, "Marguerite in the Chapel of our Lady of Sorrow" (76), there is the same minute painting of the details, the fresco on the wall and the glazed tiles on the floor, obtruding on the eye with unpleasant reality, while Marguerite, a pretty, sentimental, fair grisette, who is placing a white lily in the vase before the figure of the Virgin, is studied as to her dress like a miniature of Holbein's, when we should have cared far more for the expression in her face. A more interesting picture of Marguerite's story is one by M. Koller (73), "The First Interview of Faust and Marguerite," where she has been followed home from chapel by him and first hears his voice, as she is about to enter the porch of her house. The figures are painted with extreme neatness, and in good drawing, but the heads lack expression, and the attitudes are altogether too *posé*, especially in the action of the hands. The groups of people passing in the street, and the figure of Mephistopheles in the background, are well composed, though painted with too much distinctness.

We cannot admit there is anything in these pictures desirable to be imitated or taken as an example by our artists. It is not so, however, with regard to some other works in the exhibition: interiors with rustic figures, for example, by M. Edouard Frère, such as (47) "Bedtime"—a cottage in Auvergne, with a little girl and boy kneeling on each side of a poor old soul who says the prayers, and looks unutterable poverty and sadness at heart. We have no painter, not even Mulready, who has touched the same delightfully simple chord as this. By M. Duverger also there is an admirable picture of peasant life in France, truthful and full of character, without any affectation or overdone effects of colour and technical tricks. The subject is taken from La Fontaine's fable of "The Hidden Treasure," where the dying old man is telling his sons where he believes it is to be found, while they turn away doubtfully, and thinking the old man might have other things to speak of. Had an English painter chosen this subject, he would have been far less subtle in concealing his art; he would have thrown in a good deal of fine colour, and probably given his peasants the air of walking gentlemen.

In the splendid little gems of M. Meissonnier, again, there is abundant subject for an English painter of *genre* to study, whether he can work on that minute scale or the size of life; for the peculiar excellence of Meissonnier's work is that being perfect in little it has the power and quality of tone and colour that prove it could be enlarged to any dimensions without loss of its fine points of beauty. There are three pictures by M. Meissonnier of the usual small size; two are groups of Flemish soldiers in costume of the 17th century playing cards, the other is a single figure of a guitar-player. The variety of character, and the life-like expression of passing thoughts in the countenances of the gambling soldiers, and the wonderful suppleness and ease of their careless attitudes, as they sit or lounge about, form the rare points of excellence in these beautiful little pictures.

M. Gallait contributes two life-size figures nearly whole-length; one a sallow young Italian, who pauses for an instant, and looks away over the sea, as he plays the violin, called "The Illusion of Youth" (50); the other, a man in prison, bearded and grey, with straggled hair, his wrists in fetters, looking out of the picture with a wild expression of mingled scorn and disgust. This picture is called in the catalogue "The Disenchantment of Age," but this appears to have been a mistake, corrected by another title put upon the frame, calling it "Columbus in Prison." The face is very finely modelled, and the figure is drawn with much of the painter's dramatic feeling; but, on the whole, the figure does not commend itself to us either as Columbus, or the "Desillusion" of age. M. Louis Gallait must not be judged by these pictures, when we remember his "Egmont and Vargas" of last year.

By M. Van Hove there is a large picture called "Loved and Lost" (143), which has much beauty of expression in the faces of the two young nuns who are seated in a ferry-boat, being rowed across the river to the convent by an older sister. The simplicity and good keeping of the colouring lend a peculiar charm to the sentiment of the picture, which seems to be that the one sister is whispering consolation to the other, who gazes with a look of reckless despair towards the convent.

There is a small picture, apparently unfinished, by Rosa Bonheur, of two deer in the Forest of Fontainebleau; and a very pleasing little work by Mme. Henriette Brown, "The Turkish Girl" (22). M. Gerome's "Muezzin Calling the Hour of Prayer at Cairo" is not remarkable, except as a good view of Cairo. There are one or two landscapes of merit by M. Lambinet and M. Daubigny, and an especially good picture of rustic figures, "Gleaners Returning Home" (88), by M. Laugee, rather remarkable for rich harmony of light and colour. On the whole, the exhibition is decidedly an interesting one, though the pictures are not quite equal in importance to those of last year.

THE ACADEMY EXHIBITION.

As every one is asking what sort of an Exhibition we are likely to have this year, a fair excuse may be found for us if we depart from the customary reserve and utter a few conjectures—which, however, will be very different from criticism—as to the pictures which will represent the year's work of the artists. Most of the painters having now fallen into the obliging custom of showing their pictures before sending them in to the Academy, we are the better able to do this; and as the pictures are now so much the subject of conversation, it would be something very like affectation to stand upon critical ceremony and maintain a portentous silence, especially when it is evidently fast becoming the custom of this fiery age to grasp the pleasures of anticipation as well as the enjoyment of the reality. We can only hope that this very pardonable greediness for one of the most refined of all delights may not be doomed to disappointment by anything we have to say now about the pictures, and we do not think it will. The exhibition would certainly be a popular one if it were for one picture alone—Mr. Frith's much talked-of Court picture of the "Marriage of the Prince of Wales," which will hang in the post of honour accorded as a right to all pictures painted for the Queen or the King as Patron of the Academy, who are specially punctilious about being "Royal." The picture is a perfect bouquet of English lady loveliness, which is saying a great deal; and though Mr. Frith may not have reaped a golden harvest for his two years' labour, he must have had a span of delighted study of beauty that a Sir Joshua might have envied. The picture is not very large—perhaps about ten feet by seven in height, these proportions being necessary to show the beautiful architecture and the Queen's private pew, which is a Gothic balcony projecting at a considerable height above one side of the altar. As a pendant to the marriage picture will probably be hung Mr. Philip's large picture of "Young Murillo Painting," or, rather, showing a picture, just painted, in the market-place of Seville, as he did when first he tried his self-taught hand in painting the picturesque *gamins* of that most picturesque of Spanish cities. The centre group of two Dominican monks, with their large shovel-hats, looking at the painting, and a wild *gilaud*, who strives to get a peep at it, is the finest point in the work; but the picture is full of life and character, and will rank amongst the painter's highest achievements. Mr. Ward usually fills an important place on the line in the large room; this year, however, being one of the hanging committee (with Mr. Millais and Mr. Cooke), he obeys the custom, as Mr. Cooke does also, of sending one picture only, and this is a small work. The subject is not the assassination of David Rizzio, but the seizure of the favourite of Mary by the stern Ruthven, who is a principal figure in the group, and has suddenly interrupted the party of the Queen, the wretched Darnley, Rizzio, and the Duchess of Argyle, seated at a table. Rizzio appeals to the Queen, she has risen to command Ruthven, and holds her husband's wrist, as if to quiet his terrors at the sight of Ruthven in complete armour, looking like a fierce ghost. The picture is lit entirely by the candles and the fire in the hearth. Mr. Cooke contributes one more Dutch galliot to his fleet, rigged perfect to a rope. Mr. Millais will set forth his title to his new rank with five pictures, the chief of which is the Roman soldier parting from his wife or mistress, which is conceived very much with the same intention as his three other duet pictures—the Huguenot lovers, the Highland wife and husband, and the Black Brunswicker and his love. The other pictures are, "The Devil sowing Tares," similar to an etching which has been seen before; "Joan of Arc with the Sword;" "Esther;" and a pretty girl in old English costume, to illustrate Tennyson's "Swallow Swallow." Mr. Leighton, who is now an Associate, sends one large picture of three life-size figures—Helen, walking on the ramparts of Troy, thinking of her home, and two attendants, very subordinate figures. There will be abundant discussion about this picture, as to its deep blue patches of shadow from a vertical sun at the feet of each figure, and the curious draperies, but no dispute as to the genuine poetic feeling of the work. The "David" is a seated figure, about half life-size, showing the Psalmist meditating in Eastern fashion on the roof—a fine figure, with dark beard and flowing hair, clothed in rich robes. Two pleasing little pictures of figures in St. Mark's, Venice, are in the style of colouring which is admired in Tintoretto and Titian; and another, of a reclining modern Venus fed with ripe cherries by an infant, represents the painter's feeling for colour of another sentiment. Mr. P. H. Calderon, another new Associate of the year, is unfortunately cut out of the Exhibition by not being able to finish his picture in time. This is to be regretted as much for the Exhibition's sake as for his own, for the picture—a Royal procession in the fifteenth century, in honour of a very young Princess—would have been a favourite one. Mr. Goodall, long one of our most painstaking and perfect students of the picturesque with all the beauties of the palette, has chosen an admirable subject in "The Rise of the Nile," a large work, in which his full acquaintance with the country and the people has enabled him to paint a picture in every respect valuable and interesting. Mr. O'Neil has chosen that charming old story of Canute, with his primitive Court, listening to the chant of the monks of Ely as the boatmen rest on their oars gliding down the River Ouse.

Mr. Armitage is one of the painters long fighting an uphill fight, who, if we are not deceived, will this year win his spurs with his picture of "Haman throwing himself at the Feet of Esther, entreating for his Life"—a work full of action, and exceedingly well composed. Mr. Ansdell, too, will again assert his claims to the

fullest honours of the Academy, as a painter of animals and picturesque figures, in three large pictures, but chiefly by one of unusual merit and very great interest as a characteristic subject of the south of Spain—horses treading out the corn, being driven round in a circle by a man who rides standing in a kind of wooden shoe with blunt knives on its under surface, so as to cut the straw into coarse chaff. Mr. Elmore sends a decidedly sensation picture—a scene at the window of the gambling-room at Homburg, where an infatuated young lady, after losing all, is being tempted in this extremity by an admirer, who improves the occasion. This is a small picture that will probably be a good deal discussed on many grounds.

Mr. Marks sends two of his pictures—"Hark, hark, the Dogs do bark, Beggars are coming to Town," a rich medley of characteristic figures; and "Feeble," the tailor, in his shop measuring a very stout lady for a kirtel, surpassing in unctuous humour his first good work, the "Franciscan Sculptor."

Mr. Hook continues his pretty seaside studies, but we trust to be spared Mr. Poole's Arcadian revivals.

Sir Edwin Landseer, it is whispered, will astonish us once again in his vigorous old age, but his studio is a sanctum proof against all privileges.

The sculpture is not likely to be better than it has been for some years past, except that we hope to see a very fine seated heroic figure of "Saul," by Mr. Story, which was nearly finished in the sculptor's studio at Rome at the end of last year, and which will fully sustain the reputation gained for his "Cleopatra" and "Sibyl."

The prospects of the Exhibition, then, are good, without being strikingly elevating in the direction of great historical pictures.

MUSIC.

THE present revival of "Comus" at Drury Lane Theatre is open to the same reproach that applied to its last production twenty-three years since at Covent Garden—that of not including a note of the original music which Henry Lawes composed to his friend Milton's words. Apart from the interest attaching to the association of the two men, and their conjoint efforts in the work referred to—Lawes having, in addition to composing the music, himself performed the Spirit and the Shepherd Thyrsis in the original representation—there is a quaint charm and antique grace about these original settings which should secure their introduction into any performance of "Comus" into which music enters. It is owing to the researches of our eminent musical antiquary, Dr. Rimbault, that four of the songs of "Comus," set by Lawes, have been recovered. One, "Sweet Echo," is given by Dr. Burney in his "History of Music"; but the preservation of the other four is owing to Dr. Rimbault, by whom they are included in his interesting publication, "The Ancient Vocal Music of England." Lawes' own manuscript of the songs in "Comus" is known to have been in possession of Dr. Philip Hayes, with these preliminary lines in Lawes' handwriting, "The five songs following were sett for a Maske presented at Ludlow Castle, before ye Earle of Bridgewater, Lord President of the Marches. October, 1634." Much confusion has existed, and still exists, as to the original "Comus" music, as we find contemporaries asserting that none of it is extant. Even the minor mis-statement of its never having been printed, made by Sir John Hawkins and Dr. Burney, and repeated by the Rev. H. J. Todd, in the preface to his edition of Milton, appears to be equally incorrect, since it seems the music was published in the year of its first performance, a copy having been in the possession of Mr. Bartleman, the celebrated bass singer of the early part of the present century. Dr. Arne, however, made "Comus, musically, all his own, by his setting of it, produced in 1738, which has ever since been the basis on which all subsequent revivals have been founded. Although not equal to his music to some of Shakespeare's songs, Arne's "Comus" music generally pleases the less cultivated and the more elderly portion of an English audience by its light and simple character and from old association. Of anything like dramatic force or originality of style it is utterly destitute; and its revival in the present day, when we are accustomed to the vocal passion and orchestral colouring of modern opera, is like a recurrence, in mature manhood, to the jingling rhymes of the nursery. Nowhere in his "Comus" has Arne displayed much of that charm of melody and thoroughly English character to be found in some of his other music. Indeed, his style was generally feeble compared with that of the great English composers who preceded him. Much the same may be said of his successor, Bishop, whose additions to "Comus" (some of them included in the present Drury Lane version) are not comparable to many of his other productions. Compared with either Arne's or Bishop's "Comus" music, the original settings, simple as they are, have a touch of combined force and grace much more worthy of association with the text. The interpolated pieces by Handel, the song and chorus, "Haste thee, Nymph;" and "Or let the merry bells ring round," given to the chorus alone, would have been more effective had they been better performed. Mr. H. Drayton's style is too heavy and monotonous for the expression of genial joviality, and the chorus is not strong enough to give that massive effect which even the lightest music of Handel requires. The orchestra, too, is weak in tone and scrambling in execution. Another introduction is a song composed for the occasion, in the most maudlin style of the commonplace ballad of the day; while the stage action, the revelry of Comus and his troop, is accom-

panied by some music of the coarsest and most vulgar description. Notwithstanding the excellent singing of Miss Poole, Miss Augusta Thomson, and Mr. Wilby Cooper, the incongruous effect of the mixed musical selection and the pantomimic coarseness of some of the instrumental additions, were in startling opposition to the care bestowed on the scenic and dramatic accessories; and the declamation of the speeches of Comus and the Lady, by Mr. Walter Lacy and Mrs. Herman Vezin was an agreeable change from the general feebleness of the music.

The usual Passion-week performances of the Messiah took place last week. Mr. Costa's oratorio, "Naaman," it is understood, will be produced by the Sacred Harmonic Society on May 12.

Her Majesty's Theatre is to open this night week, instead of to-night, as originally announced.

The approaching production of Meyerbeer's posthumous opera, "L'Africaine," is causing unparalleled excitement in Paris. Every place in the theatre has long since been disposed of—the Court, alone, it is said, having taken 300 places—and admission on the first night, if not already secured, appears now to be beyond hope. The date has already been postponed once or twice, and probably will be again. In all likelihood the public of Paris will not hear "L'Africaine" for several weeks yet.

THE LONDON THEATRES.

THE revival of Milton's "Comus" at Drury Lane gives the holiday public a mixed intellectual and sensuous treat that is not often presented at this season. The scenery, the music, and the elaborate stage accessories of a spectacle have been wedded, in this case, to immortal verse; and if the verse is not dramatic, there is sufficient literary interest attached to it to apologise for its appearance on the stage. We are not amongst those who believe in the doctrine of literary infallibility, and prefer to judge each production on its merits, without any blind worship of the author. "Comus," like "Manfred," can only be rendered endurable on the stage by the employment of all those arts which are so often censured in the so-called sensational dramatist. "Manfred" was a vulgar spectacle, "Comus" is a refined spectacle; but the "words" of the latter, as the actors contemptuously call them, have been laboriously tinkered, or "re-edited." The version used at Drury Lane is not altogether Dr. Dalton's nor the elder Colman's; it is a clever patchwork of Milton's poems made by Mr. Edmund Falconer. If the *Mask* had been performed as it was originally performed at Ludlow Castle in 1634, it would hardly have been tolerated by an audience only recently weaned from the wild jollities of Greenwich Fair. The musical merits of this revival have been fully dealt with in another column. The scenery, by Mr. Beverley, is pretty and fanciful, as all Mr. Beverley's scenes are; but we prefer Mr. Telbin's brush for forest pictures. The hall of "Comus," in which the lady is tempted, reminds us of the great banquet scene in "Sardinapalus." The architecture of this picture might have been more massive, and might have been arranged so as to give an idea of greater space. It would be absurd to go into raptures about the acting, because there is literally nothing to act. The most we can say is that Mr. Walter Lacy made a good jolly Comus and Mrs. Hermann Vezin an interesting and unobjectionable lady, and that both recited the beautiful lines of the poet with taste and judgment. The ballet accessories are liberally supplied by the management.

At the Strand theatre a new serio-comic drama, by Mr. Craven, has been produced, called "One Tree Hill," which wants the strength and simplicity of "Milky White." The story is weak, improbable, and unnecessarily complicated, turning much upon lost wills, documents, and property, though the chief characters move in humble life. The central figures are two Greenwich pensioners—one a West Indian negro, whose humour might be traced to Captain Cuttle, and his seafaring friend of whom he had such a high opinion. Mr. Craven's acting, as one of the pensioners, exhibits the same faults and merits which we noticed more than once in "Milky White." His imitation of the late Frederick Robson is not so palpable; but he still clings to a gasping, uneasy style, which is not justified by any force of passion. Mr. Stoyle, who plays the old negro pensioner, has again shown himself to be a conscientious artistic actor, and the way in which he avoids playing to the audience in so small a house is admirable. His negro, like Mr. Jamison's Pete in the "Octoroon," is so natural that many of his speeches are almost incomprehensible; but this is a failing on the right side. Miss M. Palmer also plays a quiet domestic character in a most natural manner, and displays judicious force in a situation in which force is thrown away. She is bewailing the loss of a child supposed to be drowned, and her feelings are shared by the two old pensioners; but the author has constructed his piece so badly, that the audience know the child is safe, and this burst of agony is consequently thrown away.

The scenery is excellent—a view of the Thames from "One Tree Hill" being wonderfully painted and arranged for so small a stage.

The little Prince of Wales's Theatre, in Tottenham-street, Tottenham-court-road, thoroughly cleaned and re-decorated, was opened last Saturday night, under the management of Miss Marie Wilton and Mr. H. J. Byron. It starts with that class of entertainment which Miss Swanborough made popular at the Strand Theatre in 1859, and is furnished with one of Mr. Byron's best burlesques, on the subject of "La Sonnambula." Mr. Byron is always most happy when he deals with romantic stories, or pieces of sentimental pretension, like the "Lady of Lyons," and "La

Sonnambula," fairly acted and well put upon the stage, is as pleasant a burlesque as "The Maid and the Magpie." The little manageress, like some of the former actresses who have appeared at this house, and to whom we alluded last week, is full of talent and engaging spirit, and we are glad to see that Mr. Byron is associated with the management. A gentleman and an author will at least make a more hopeful manager than some of the publicans, prize-fighters, rowdy swells, and seedy discounters who get hold of too many London and country theatres.

Mr. Fechter has revived "Belphegor" at the Lyceum—playing that version of "Paillasse" which was written for Mr. Charles Dillon by Mr. Charles Webb, one of the Brothers Dromio. Mr. Dillon made a reputation in this part at Sadler's Wells, which was never altogether sustained by his subsequent acting in the legitimate drama, but he was an actor of unquestionable though limited genius. His Belphegor played him into the lesseeship of the Lyceum in 1857. Mr. Webster's representation of the character at the Adelphi about ten years ago also made a great impression on the town, and the drama—one of the best of the modern French romantic school—has been popular since that time with all grades of performers. Mr. Fechter's embodiment of the mountebank is distinguished by all his grace, refinement, and feeling, the weakest points being the comic scenes. Mdlle. Beatrice has found a congenial character in Madeleine, the wife, and the rest of the parts are well distributed and effectively acted. Mr. Fechter has introduced his infant son to the stage in this drama, and the little fellow acts as all children do, if they act at all, like a well-trained pupil.

The drama is well put upon the stage, but the delays in setting the scenes are as long and tiresome as ever. We believe Mr. Fechter intends to make a long provincial tour early in the summer, and the theatre will probably be devoted for the remainder of the year to a new drama by Mr. Boucicault.

Mr. F. C. Burnand has furnished the holiday folks with two classical burlesques, one called "Pirithous, the Son of Ixion," at the New Royalty, and the other called "Ulysses," at the St. James's. They are both constructed on the old Olympic model, and are written with great care, but the incidents and comic business want novelty. "Pirithous" is brilliantly put upon the stage at the New Royalty, and the ladies have spared no money on their dresses, but the acting is very affected, uneven, and amateurish. Two or three actors of fair ability have to leaven such a mass of pretty incapability and flippancy as few other theatres, happily, can present.

"Ulysses," at the St. James's, serves to introduce Mr. J. Robson, a son of the late Frederick Robson, to the London public. He bears a remarkable resemblance to his father, and has evidently studied his peculiar style of acting. He is very young, a tolerable singer, a nimble dancer, and a spasmodic and quaint if not a forcible actor. It is impossible to say what he may become eventually, but his first appearance, to say the least of it, was promising. He was received in a manner which was most creditable to the good feeling of an English audience. Miss Charlotte Saunders was of great service, as usual, in securing the success of the piece, and as Jupiter she made herself up to represent both the first Napoleon and the present Emperor of the French. The first effect is an old trick, transplanted from the Strand Theatre. In the second, she would have done better if she had made herself fair, like the Emperor, instead of swarthy. Minerva, played by Mr. Felix Rogers, is a character transplanted from the author's burlesque of "Ixion." The general acting was weak and affected, and the ingenious music of the piece was considerably mangled in the execution.

Mr. Tom Taylor's comedy of "Settling-day" has been cut down to three acts, and the Capel-court scene, the most realistic in the piece, is no longer represented. The end of the comedy has been materially altered.

A new conjuror, Colenel Stodart, an American we presume, has appeared at the Egyptian Hall, and has introduced the celebrated Indian basket trick; and Professor Pepper, at the Polytechnic, has exhibited a wonderful cabinet, in which many persons appear and disappear in succession. The Indian basket trick is somewhat repulsive and sensational, representing, as it does, a supposed brutal murder, but it is very effective.

SCIENCE.

At a late meeting of the Quebec Entomological Society, a paper was read by Mr. W. Couper upon a gall-producing insect, which is parasitic upon the common creeping rye-grass. The species belongs to the hymenoptera, or bee order. As soon as the larva issues from the egg, it places its head downwards in the gall, remaining in that position until it eats its way through. About the end of September it ceases to feed, and prepares to meet a Canadian winter. By this time the gall is hardened, and the larvae remain in a torpid state, becoming active again in the spring, and changing to perfect insects in time to attack the young grass of the season. The Baron Osten Sacken, to whom Mr. Couper's specimens were transmitted for identification, regards the insect as belonging to the genus *Eurytoma*, but is unable to say whether it is *E. fulvipes* or not.

The last number of the "Proceedings of the Royal Society" contains a report of Professor Owen's recent paper upon the anatomy of certain portions of the mammalian brain, and Mr. W. H. Flower's reply thereto. The professor, who gave his paper a very vague and somewhat pedantic title, made a very decided

attack upon the Conservator of the Royal College of Surgeons. He accused this gentleman of mis-stating his (Professor Owen's) views and borrowing his ideas. To those to whom Mr. Flower is known such charges appeared ridiculous, but inasmuch as any assertion of so distinguished a person as Professor Owen carries a considerable weight with it, it became necessary for Mr. Flower to repudiate them. From a perusal of the two communications we feel bound to state that the charges of Professor Owen are quite unfounded, and that he left the scientific world under the impression that among the Monotremata and Marsupialia, the hemispheres of the brain were not united by a "corpus callosum."

The Anthropological Society does not (if we may judge from the opinions of its most distinguished fellows) approve of Christian missions to the Africans. On Tuesday evening two papers were read upon the subject, and although both were inferior to the able essay of Mr. Winwood Reade, one of them bore out the views of this distinguished traveller respecting the moral condition of the converted negro. Captain Burton remarked, at the conclusion of the second paper, that his own experience corroborated the statement made to the meeting. "The native Pagan of Africa was not a nice animal, but he was infinitely superior to the African converted to Christianity. No people could be worse, more immoral, or every way disgusting, than the native Christians of Sierra Leone." The captain made some further observations relative to his own researches in Blarney-lane, Galway" (?), from which we conclude that he regards the Irish convert as holding about the same level as the African !

Dr. P. Martin Duncan being engaged in preparing an appendix to MM. Edwards' and Haimes' "British Fossil Corals," and Mr. Henry Woodward having also undertaken to prepare a monograph of "Palaeozoic Crustacea" of the order *Eurypterida* for the Palaeontological Society, they beg to request the kind assistance of geologists, paleontologists, and private collectors generally throughout the country, in forwarding their labours, either by the communication of information as to localities, or by the offer of the loan of specimens for examination, &c.

Signor Gorini, an Italian Professor, well-known in the scientific circles of the Continent, whose mode of preserving flesh has already been noticed in these columns, is said to have invented a process by which he exhibits in miniature the geological formation of our globe. The precise method by which this result is obtained is as yet a secret; but we are informed that the Professor prepares a hot liquid composition which he pours into a large basin, and that, as this fluid cools, the spectator beholds gradually rising from its surface bold elevations having the shape and character of mountains, which break into smaller chains of hills, sloping down towards the plain, and in their course developing a succession of valleys. Such, at least, is what we hear from Italy; and we shall be glad to learn more of so singular a process, as we shall probably have an opportunity of doing when Signor Gorini pays a visit to England, before the scientific societies of which it is said that he will shortly exhibit in person both the inventions with which his name is associated.

SCIENTIFIC MEETINGS.—Monday: Royal Geographical Society, at 8½ p.m., Sir R. I. Murchison, K.C.B., President, in the chair.—1. "On the Bayanos River, in the Isthmus of Panama." By Lawrence Oliphant, Esq.—2. "A Journey from the foot of Chimborazo to Bogota, across the Central Andes." By R. Cross, Esq.—Tuesday: Institution of Civil Engineers, at 8 p.m.—1. "Discussion on Captain Tyler's Paper 'On the Festiniog Railway.'"—2. "On Uniform Stress in Girder Work." By Callcott Reilly, Assoc. Inst. C.E. Zoological Society of London, at 8.30 p.m.—1. "On some rare and little known Mammals of Western Africa, in the Lisbon Museum." By Dr. Barboza du Bocage.—2. "On the Systematic Position of the genus *Platachonthomys*." By Dr. Peter.

MONEY AND COMMERCE.

THE EQUITABLE LIFE INSURANCE OFFICE.

UNDER the above title we published, in the LONDON REVIEW of March 25, an article in which we gave a brief sketch of the *Equitable* Life Office, and especially of the mode in which it deals with the large profits which are ascertained to exist at the decennial investigations of its assets and liabilities, and we attempted to show that the effect of the mode in which the large profits of the society are dealt with was subversive of the true and beneficial principle of life assurance, and introduced amongst the members of the society the principle rather of the *tontine*, by which the longest lives obtain the greatest advantages.

To this article Mr. Morgan, the able and much-esteemed actuary of the *Equitable*, replied in a letter which we inserted in the LONDON REVIEW of the 8th instant, and to this letter we gave precisely the same prominence as had been given to our own article.

The *Equitable* is in point of fact a large private partnership, and is not, strictly speaking, a public company. But it is so very large a partnership, the principles involved in its mode of procedure are so important, and the career of the society and

its past great success, coupled with the fact that it would appear to have fallen into disfavour with the public, are likely so much to influence the future dealings between Life Insurance Offices and the public, that we shall again advert to the question of its system of dividing its surplus funds amongst its members. We have no doubt that our doing this will not be altogether agreeable to the executive of the society, but we hope to be able to do it without injury to the society, and with advantage to that portion of the public which is interested in such questions.

Mr. Morgan acknowledges that we gave "a favourable and true account of the history and management of the society, and also a correct account of the mode in which its surplus is determined, and has been from time to time apportioned among its members." But he complains, or, perhaps, only observes—but, if he is right, we think he might reasonably have complained—that we suggested that the whole surplus should be at once divided amongst the members and the office started afresh; and he attributes to us the expression of a supposition that in such a case a very large and profitable business would accrue, which, in its turn, would yield great advantages to its members. Mr. Morgan then proceeds to say that we have given no reason whatever for this supposition, and declares that it would be useless to enter into any discussion upon it for reasons which we shall give shortly in his own words.

We are quite sure that when Mr. Morgan attributed to us such a suggestion as that the whole surplus should be divided and the office started afresh, he quite believed that we had made it, but he was mistaken. To save him and our readers the trouble of turning to a back number of the REVIEW, we will repeat the *ipsissima verba* of the article in question. After describing the way in which the *surplus* was ascertained, we said, "If the surplus were at once divided amongst the members, the society would fall into the position of a young office, but would start afresh with a very large and profitable business, which, judging from past experience, would yield in its turn great advantages to its members." The quotation of our words is a sufficient answer to Mr. Morgan on this point, and we need not indicate to him or to our readers the difference between a suggestion and an hypothesis. But, had this been a suggestion instead of, as in fact it was, an hypothesis introduced to show the effect of a distribution of the whole surplus, it would still have been erroneous, but the error, we are sure, would have been an unintentional one, to have said that we gave no reason for supposing, on our hypothesis, that the new office would be a successful one, for we expressly ground that opinion on "past experience;" and we confess that we should rather expect Mr. Morgan to agree with than to differ from us, if the ability which has always distinguished the actuaries of the *Equitable*, and the honourable dealing and care for the interests of the society which have always distinguished the management, were really applied to a new society, which might be started with the large accumulation of policies already existing in the society.

We will not ask Mr. Morgan to acknowledge the error into which he has fallen—the origin of it is pretty self-evident. We gave, as he acknowledges, a true account of the facts, and of the mode in which the *surplus* of the society is ascertained and apportioned, and we gave, as well, an account of the probable consequences of an hypothesis merely introduced to show the nature of a *surplus* and the probable consequences of its distribution. This account of what might be expected to follow a distribution of the surplus, and a fair start on a method more acceptable to the public, and more advantageous to the members of the society, forcibly suggested to Mr. Morgan's mind the advisability of such a course if it were practicable, and he mistook the suggestion in his own mind arising out of our article for a suggestion in the article itself. In fact, the advantages of the course were so apparent to Mr. Morgan's mind, as they were, no doubt, to the minds of our readers, that he avoids the discussion by declaring such a course to be impracticable.

We will not venture to say that the advantages of such a course might not be more than balanced by its difficulties and inconveniences, but since Mr. Morgan has given his reasons for pronouncing it to be "impracticable," we will briefly point out that, however impracticable it may be in point of fact, it is not impracticable for the reasons given by Mr. Morgan. These are the legal and financial objections arising out of the complicated state of the interests of old and new insurers, and the circumstance that many policies of large amount are held in trust. These are difficulties; but, so far from their being insurmountable, such difficulties are overcome every day. As to those arising out of the complicated nature of the interests, we know of no one more able to solve them than Mr. Morgan

himself. He will not, we are persuaded, contend that he would feel any difficulty in writing over against every individual policy now existing in the *Equitable* the value of its share in the funds of the society.

As to the legal difficulties, we apprehend that those which Mr. Morgan was thinking of, but did not express, are, first, that of getting the consent of *all* the members to any change affecting their interests; and secondly, that trustees would ordinarily not be empowered to consent to any course, however advisable, affecting the property they hold in trust. These are difficulties which are every day, and in similar cases, surmounted by an Act of Parliament, whenever it appears that there are sound reasons for any change which may be proposed, and which is desired by a very large majority of those who are able to assent to it, and which does not really prejudice the minority who may object to it.

We have considered with the attention which anything coming from so high an authority deserves the answer of Mr. Morgan to our strictures on the way in which the *surplus*, when ascertained, is dealt with. But we are unable, in any degree, to modify our objections to it, and still think it "subversive of the true objects of life insurance."

It is undeniably true that, when a mode of valuation is adopted, based on the same assumed *data* as those on which the premiums were originally calculated, the members who live longest must receive larger additions to their policies than those receive who die earlier; for the former will live through a larger number of periods of ascertainment and distribution of *surplus*. This is unavoidable. In this respect we admit that Mr. Morgan is right in saying that the principle of division is the same in other offices as in the *Equitable*. We will go a step further with him, and acknowledge that the principle is *right*, if by *right* we understand *unavoidable*. It is, in point of fact, a necessary consequence of the process adopted of ascertaining the *surplus* by the same table of mortality, and the same rate of interest as those by which the premiums were calculated. But the mode in which the *Equitable* deals with the *surplus* when ascertained, enormously increases the disadvantage under which all its members who do not live to old age suffer, and similarly increases the advantage which is enjoyed by the longer livers. Mr. Morgan is no doubt right, and we are as clearly wrong, if we have mistaken the object of life insurance. We conceive the object of life insurance to be to equalize the pecuniary disadvantages of short life and the pecuniary advantages of long life amongst the members of a life insurance office to the extent to which each member insures his life. If two members pay the same annual premium, they ought to have an equal share of the common fund, irrespectively of whether they die early or live long. We know that this object cannot be exactly attained; but we conceive that the nearer it can be approached the better, and the more it is departed from the more the object and intention of life insurance is defeated.

We say further that the mode in which the *Equitable* deals with its ascertained *surplus* is such as is more opposed to this object than is the system of division adopted by any other office, with an exception which is not worth naming, and in which the more faulty mode of division is practically corrected by the very low rate of premium charged, which leaves but little *surplus* to divide, and so renders its application of small importance.*

This unfortunate result is produced by the following means:—

1. The *surplus* having been ascertained by the same method by which the premiums are calculated, and the *reserve* therefore being as much larger than is necessary as the premiums are, *two-thirds* only, instead of the whole, of the *surplus* are divided amongst the members, and *one-third* is carried forward to increase the future benefits of the longer livers.

2. The *two-thirds* which are divided are divided so as greatly to favour the older policies. Thus, a member who has been insured three times as long as another gets three times as much added to his policy, without reference to the fact of the previous additions made at previous distributions.

3. The distributions are made at such long intervals (ten years) that the disadvantages experienced by the members who die early are greatly aggravated.

The net result is that those who join the *Equitable* must live thirty or forty years before, in case of their death, they have done as well for their families as if they had joined many other life insurance societies.

* We refer to a Scotch office, which charges a very low rate of premium, and distributes its *surplus* entirely amongst those members who live long enough for their premiums fully to provide the sums for which their lives are insured.

The public may not understand how it is that this comes about, but they are quick at perceiving and valuing results. Accordingly, they leave the *Equitable* for offices which offer better results for their families in the particular contingency they wish to provide against, viz., early death.

If the *Equitable* were looked on as an office to provide against the last-named contingency to a certain moderate extent, and as a tontine office in which, after providing against that contingency to a certain extent, large prizes would fall to the lot of the longest lives, it would be perhaps as perfect an office for the purpose as could be devised.

If such an office were much wanted, no doubt the public would frequent the *Equitable* in crowds. That it is not much wanted is evidenced by the very moderate amount of business now done by the office.

It is our office to criticize rather than to suggest. If we were to venture somewhat beyond our province and make a suggestion, it would be that Mr. Morgan and the directors of the *Equitable* would apply themselves to remedy a state of things which has not grown out of the original intentions of the founders of the society, but entirely out of the imperfect data at their command.

But whether we criticize or suggest, we hope to avoid being understood as making any imputation on the able and honourable management which has been overtaken by originally unforeseen difficulties arising out of a degree of success which was never anticipated, and which has made the distribution of the large profits which were never contemplated a point of as much importance as was originally the ability of the society to meet its engagements.

THE CRÉDIT FONCIER AND CRÉDIT MOBILIER OF ENGLAND, LIMITED.

THIS company, the offspring of the twins known as the Crédit Foncier and Crédit Mobilier, which ceased to exist amidst a blaze of blue light and rockets last autumn, has kept up the character of its antecedents.

The directors have issued their first half-yearly report, from which it appears that the company has not only been able to lay a golden egg, but intends to lay eggs of this kind for all time to come, in the shape of a 20 per cent. dividend. The balance-sheet is full of astounding figures representing no less a sum than £200,000 carried to a reserved fund, and £70,000 put to the credit of a new fund, now invented for the first time, and called a "Dividend Reserve Fund," beside upwards of £70,000 paid away in dividend. The sum of £34,600. 10s. 7d. is likewise carried forward to the credit of the next account. The total thus dealt with as balance of profit and loss on one half-year's account amounts to no less than £394,024. 16s. 4d. This is made up of £160,296 received from the public for premiums on the company's shares, and £240,000, the amount of old "Crédit Mobilier" and "Crédit Foncier" reserve funds, leaving £193,728. 16s. 4d. as the net sum earned during the six months just elapsed. All very easy to write and talk about hundreds of thousands earned on a paid-up capital of only £400,000; but men of the world know well enough that no financial or commercial business conducted on old and sound business principles can produce such results within the first few months of commencing business.

We notice one item in the balance-sheet, which, at any rate, seems to require explanation. In the absence of further information on this point, it is obviously impossible to criticize figures. We have no facts; but if it is not seeking to penetrate too far into the mysteries of this new and rapid process of acquiring wealth, we should like very much to know on what sort of foundation the trifling item of £1,325,492. 15s. 6d. rests? It occupies only one line in the balance-sheet, and is given, as "Bills receivable, securities, loans on securities, and sundry debtors." If there should be any question about any of these securities, it might make all the difference; and it must be confessed the information, as it stands, is not very ample, nor, as we apprehend, very satisfactory.

The directors are each entitled, under the Articles of Association, to a fixed salary of £350, and, in addition, to a sum equal to £10 per centum of the surplus profits after paying a dividend of £10 per cent. The amount of remuneration is certainly large, but under all the circumstances, and having regard to the contingencies which may possibly attach to any men of position acting as directors of such an undertaking, we do not think they are overpaid. There are men who would not consider the remuneration a sufficient inducement to go on the Board.

STOCK EXCHANGE RULES.

THE committee of the Stock Exchange have had the courage and good sense to repeal the very injurious rule which they adopted last year, with the object of preventing any dealing in shares of new companies before allotment. The resolution was carried by 17 to 4. We have repeatedly drawn attention to this subject, and shown the absurdity and inefficiency of the rule. The object was no doubt a good one, and the whole movement well intended, but it was not the less a mistake; and most mischievously it worked. The re-

laxation of the prohibition may have the effect of reviving speculation on a small scale, but the public have had enough of joint-stock jobbing for the present. Speculation, as such, is dead, and company-mongers will not be able to make much capital out of this or any other favourable combination of circumstances. The time has now come when the committee must assure all respectable companies of a settling day without reference to the prejudice or interest of any members of the body.

THE quotation of gold at Paris is about 1½ per mille premium, and the short exchange on London is 25·17½ per £1 sterling. On comparing these rates with the English Mint price of £3. 17s. 10½d. per ounce for standard gold, it appears that gold is rather more than 1·10th per cent. dearer in Paris than in London.

Consols are now quoted 90½ to ½ for money, and 90½ to 91 for the account (May 9).

There has been a good amount of business in Colonial Government securities. Canada 6 per Cents. (January and July), 1877-84, fetched 91½ 1; 5 per Cents., 77½ 9½; Ceylon 6 per Cents. (1864), 104½; Mauritius 6 per Cents. (1895), 105½; New South Wales 5 per Cents. (1888-92), 92½; Victoria 6 per Cents. (April and October), 107½.

In the foreign market the speculative stocks were generally heavy. The Confederate Loan fell to 18·20 on the further disastrous news for the Southern cause, whilst United States 6 per Cents., 5-20 years, advanced to 64·5 ex coupons. Mexican declined to 26½ ½. Turkish Consolidés were tolerably steady at 53½ 4. Spanish Passives also exhibited dulness at 31½ ½, and the Certificates, 16½ ½.

Bank shares have been rather firmer during the last few days. An improvement has taken place in London Joint Stock Bank, Provincial Bank of Ireland, and Continental Bank. There were also inquiries for London and County Bank. Imperial Bank, Imperial Ottoman, Bank of Hindustan new, and London Bank of Mexico shares, however, were flat.

The market for railway shares presented a dull appearance, and prices in many instances showed a decline, varying from ¼ to 1½ per cent.

The quotations for the shares of some of the new companies are subjoined:—Metropolitan District Railways, 9 to ½ prem.; Varna Railway, 5½ to 6 prem.; Millwall Freehold Land and Docks, 1½ to 0½ dis.; Anglo-Egyptian Navigation, 3 to ½ prem.; and Russian Iron Works, 2 to ½ prem.

There has been a good demand for discounts, but the supply of money was large. The rate for the best bills is 3½ per cent. In the Stock Exchange there has been only a slight inquiry for short loans on English Government securities, and the charge has declined to 2 to 2½ per cent.

The biddings for 30,000,000 rupees in bills on India took place on Wednesday at the Bank of England. The proportions allotted were to Calcutta 2,70,000 rupees, and to Madras 35,000 rupees. The minimum price was fixed at 1s. 11d. on Calcutta and Madras, and 1s. 11½d. on Bombay. Tenders on Calcutta and Madras at the minimum will receive in full; on Bombay all the tenders were below the minimum.

The Union Bank of Australia, as financial agents of the government of Queensland, invite tenders, receivable until noon on Wednesday, the 3rd of May, for 6 per cent. debentures to the amount of £127,500, being the balance issued under the recent act of the colonial legislature. These debentures are of £100 each, and become due the 1st January, 1884. The principal and interest are payable in London or Brisbane, at the option of the holder.

At the special meeting of the Great Eastern Railway Company, to be held on the 24th instant, the following bills will be submitted, viz.: A Bill for authorizing the making, by the Tottenham and Hampstead Junction Railway Company, of lines of railway by way of substitution for lines of railway already authorized to be made by them, and for authorizing arrangements between them and the Great Eastern Railway Company and the Midland Railway Company, and for other purposes.—A Bill to authorize the construction by the London and Blackwall Railway Company of railways in the parishes of Stepney, Poplar, and Limehouse, to be called "The London, Blackwall, and Millwall Extension Railway;" to authorize agreements with other companies with reference thereto; and for other purposes.

We are directed to state that:—"The directors of the Amicable Society have concluded a provisional arrangement with the Norwich Union Life Insurance Society, by which that Society, assuming the assets and liabilities of the Amicable, will guarantee the payment of all claims on Charter Policies, whenever falling due, at the rate of £227 for every share of £200; and also the claims on Bonus Policies, the future additions being calculated in every year upon the principles dictated by the Society's Act of Parliament and Bye-Laws, and based upon the sum of £227 as the permanent annual actual Dividend per Share; thus placing the Bonus Policy-holders upon an equal footing with the holders of Charter Policies."

It appears from the Paris advices that there is no intention of opening lists in London for the New Mexican Loan of £10,000,000. This being a lottery loan, its introduction here would be clearly illegal.

It is understood that the contract with Mr. Laing, chairman of the General Credit Company, for the consolidation of the Turkish home debt, and for the raising of a new Turkish loan, is practically settled, and that the affair will be brought forward next week.

The Greek Government has just paid to the Three Protecting Powers the sum of 600,000£ in discharge of the interest due to them for the current year on the Guaranteed Loan of 1832, in pursuance of the arrangement made in January last.

The Swiss Federal Council has informed the Zollverein that Switzerland is willing provisionally to apply the Franco-Swiss Commercial Treaty to Germany, from the 1st July next, provided that the Zollverein would apply to Switzerland the provisions of the treaty of commerce lately concluded between the Zollverein and France.

REVIEWS OF BOOKS.

PORTER'S GIANT CITIES OF BASHAN.*

MR. PORTER, who is well known by his former works as a careful and zealous explorer of Palestine and Syria, has now published a popular account of his travels in those countries. It may be a surprise to some readers that anything should remain to be said about Palestine, still more that a traveller should be able to speak of a great part of that country as almost unexplored. Yet it is true that the territory to the east of the Jordan, especially the Hawrān and the Lejā, is nearly as unknown as any part of the world which has been visited by western travellers. Dean Stanley leaves this important tract undescribed from personal observation ; Mr. Grove has not visited it ; and of those who have published any account of its marvels we can only recollect our author, Mr. Cyril Graham, and Burckhardt, who first ventured upon its exploration. Mr. Tristram visited it as a naturalist, and those indefatigable archaeologists, Mr. Waddington and Count Melchior de Vogué, have not yet made public the result of their laborious explorations. This region, which is full of wonders, and wonders with the bloom upon them, lies out of the beaten track. But there is a more serious difficulty ; it is the refuge of a population which defies the Turkish government or misgovernment, and does not like to admit strangers into its hiding-places. The Druses are civil to the English, but they do not approve of western curiosity. Perhaps they are shrewd enough to suspect that western books of travel are read by the Turks of Constantinople, and are likely to suggest various ways of weakening their independence. Mr. Porter's account of his visit to this region is therefore especially important, and his title-page affords a sufficient excuse for the prominence we give to "the giant cities of Bashan."

We wish Mr. Porter had given a map of his explorations. It will be difficult to those readers who do not chance to have at hand a good modern map of Palestine to understand, in his account of Bashan and the neighbourhood, where the several sites mentioned are ; and it would have been not less useful had he given an introductory chapter on the main features of the country. We can, indeed, scarcely criticize the work satisfactorily without filling up, by however rapid a sketch, the latter deficiency. Palestine is a lofty table-land, divided in its length by the deep valley of the Jordan, and in its breadth between the Mediterranean and the river of the valley of Esdraelon ; while on the extreme south-west is the maritime plain, narrowing northwards to the coast strip of the Phoenician cities. During the period of the Judges, these divisions of the highlands, where the Israelites took refuge from the more warlike nations that held or dominated the plain-country, separated them into three distinct bodies, the northern tribes, the southern, and the trans-Jordanite, which became afterwards the subjects of the kingdoms of Israel and Judah, and their loose dependencies beyond Jordan. The kingdom of Israel in its most prosperous times extended far into the southern table-land, yet the geographical form of the country evidently influenced the political divisions. It might be supposed that, as history repeats itself, the same was the case in the time before the Israelite conquest. The country beyond Jordan is certainly marked by ruins quite unlike those of the rest of Palestine, and which Mr. Porter unhesitatingly attributes to the primitive population, or Rephaim, the Canaanite giants. In Scripture we find that when the Israelites entered Palestine there was still a remnant of a population which the Moabites, the Ammonites, and apparently other tribes of Palestine, had overthrown. This population is mentioned as of gigantic stature ; the height of individuals is specified in the cases of Og, the king of Bashan, and Goliath of Gath ; and this race seems to have been most powerful beyond Jordan. In that district, the Israelites, instead of building towns as elsewhere, occupied those of the nations they expelled. The conquerors were the great pastoral tribes, and are unlikely to have contributed materially to the monuments of the country, besides that the true temple, and the chief false places of worship, were on the west of Jordan.

Palestine generally is devoid of any remains older than the time of the Herodian dynasty. Thus, the Romans, the Crusaders, and the Muslims have left monumental records of their government : but Jewish antiquities there are really none ; Phoenician scarcely any ; and, except beyond Jordan, there are no monuments that cannot be referred to some one of these classes. It is here that we see, not isolated structures, but whole cities deserted, though still standing, of a style of architecture that is neither Phoenician, Greek, nor Roman, and must be either Jewish, or of a still earlier population, such as the Rephaim. The Jews, however, never were architects, nor did they even employ architects who could, like the Greeks and Copts in the service of the Arabs of Egypt, form a new style. It was well remarked by Mr. Fergusson, in his recent lecture at the Royal Institution, that the builders of the Temple were smiths, not masons. No kings were ever buried in the tombs of the kings, and Absalom had nothing to do with the structure of the Herodian age, which is called his tomb. Mr. Porter, like Mr. Cyril Graham, sees in the cities of Bashan and its neighbourhood the works of the predecessors of the Israelites, and, from the massive construction of the houses, assigns those cities to the giant races. Though, before giving a positive opinion, we wait the publication of the researches of Mr. Waddington and M. de Vogué, who, being highly accomplished archaeologists, will be able to

state definitely what evidence of age these buildings bear, it seems to us that the testimony on which Mr. Porter's theory is founded is very weighty, as well as lucid. When the Israelites conquered this very country, they captured "threescore cities, all the region of Argob, all these cities fenced with high walls, gates, and bars ; beside unwalled towns a great many" (Deut. iii. 4, 5). There is, as we have said, no evidence that the Israelites ever even employed skilful architects ; the evidence is in the other direction. In this very country we find fully as many deserted walled cities of which the houses are the works of most skilful masons, and which certainly have stood the effects of time, with no injury but from man, for some two thousand years. These can only be Jewish buildings, or those earlier buildings which the Jews occupied. The question is still further narrowed by the circumstance that at least some of these houses are on the sites of the ancient ones which the Jews captured, and that it is therefore likely that some of their buildings would be of the older inhabitants ; but, as no difference can be observed in the pre-Roman architecture, all would seem to be of the time before the conquest. The extreme antiquity of these remains is therefore the most probable theory. What Mr. Porter tells us of them is extremely curious, though it is to be regretted that he is not a clearer describer ; like Mr. Cyril Graham, he does little more than produce an impression that he saw monuments which astonished him. However, some of his descriptions, though they do not enable us to picture the buildings described, give us a very distinct idea of their massive character, in which they recall the oldest monuments of known date in the world, the Pyramids of Memphis, and the surrounding tombs.

Here is a description of the first deserted city our traveller lodged in after entering Bashan from the north-east. He has just been speaking of the whole class of those ruined cities :—

"Before the darkness set in, Mūsa had pointed out to me the towers of three cofun of these cities rising above the rocky barrier of the Lejā [Argob]. How I strained my eyes in vain to pierce the deepening gloom ! How I knew that some of them must be close at hand ! The sharp ring of my horse's feet on pavement startled me. This was followed by painful stumbling over loose stones, and the twisting of his limbs among jagged rocks. The sky was black overhead ; the ground black beneath ; the rain was drifting in my face, so that nothing could be seen. A halt was called ; and it was with no little pleasure I heard the order given for the caravan to rest till the moon rose. 'Is there any spot,' I asked of an Arab at my side, 'where we could get shelter from the rain ?' 'There is a house ready for you,' he answered. 'A house ! Is there a house here ?' 'Hundreds of them ; this is the town of Burāk.' We were conducted up a rugged, winding path, which seemed, so far as we could make out in the dark and by the motion of our horses, to be something like a ruinous staircase. At length the dark outline of high walls began to appear against the sky, and presently we entered a paved street. Here we were told to dismount, and give our horses to the servants. An Arab struck a light, and, inviting us to follow, passed through a low, gloomy door into a spacious chamber.

"I looked with no little interest round the apartment of which we had taken such unceremonious possession. . . . The house seemed to have undergone little change from the time its old master had left it ; and yet the thick nitrous crust on the floor showed that it had been deserted for long ages. The walls were perfect, nearly five feet thick, built of large blocks of hewn stones, without lime or cement of any kind. The roof was formed of large slabs of the same black basalt, lying as regularly, and jointed as closely, as if the workmen had only just completed them. They measured twelve feet in length, eighteen inches breadth, and six inches in thickness. The ends rested on a plain stone cornice, projecting about a foot from each side-wall. The chamber was twenty feet long, twelve wide, and ten high. The outer door was a slab of stone, four and a half feet high, four wide, and eight inches thick. It hung upon pivots, formed of projecting parts of the slab, working in sockets in the lintel and threshold ; and, though so massive, I was able to open and shut it with ease. At one end of the room was a small window with a stone shutter. An inner door, also of stone, but of finer workmanship, and not quite so heavy as the other, admitted to a chamber of the same size and appearance. From it a much larger door communicated with a third chamber, to which there was a descent by a flight of stone steps. This was a spacious hall, equal in width to the two rooms, and about twenty-five feet long by twenty high. A semicircular arch was thrown across it, supporting the stone roof ; and a gate so large that camels could pass in and out, opened on the street. The gate was of stone, and in its place ; but some rubbish had accumulated in the threshold, and it appeared to have been open for ages. Here our horses were comfortably installed. Such were the internal arrangements of this strange old mansion. It had only one story ; and its simple, massive style of architecture gave evidence of a very remote antiquity."

It is in towns composed of houses like those that we see the chief archaeological marvels of Palestine, equal in mystery of origin to any monuments in the world, and remarkable above all others as showing us a style of domestic architecture excelling in solidity and durability anything of its kind that the world has produced.

In travelling through this region of deserted towns, Bashan and the land of Moab, Mr. Porter was struck not only by the proof they afforded of the truth of sacred history, which, as we have noticed, speaks of the sixty great towns of Argob, which was but a part of Bashan, but also with the remarkable fulfilment of prophecy in the desolate emptiness of these once rich and populous abodes of man. His remarks on this subject, especially some general observations, are worthy of careful study. So also are the many illustrations of Scripture which the work contains.

Those who follow Mr. Porter through the better-known regions of

* The Giant Cities of Bashan ; and Syria's Holy Places. By the Rev. J. L. Porter, A.M. London : Nelson & Sons.

Palestine and Syria will find much that is new to them in his narrative, and, even where there is no novelty, an interesting account of what they already knew. His style of writing, though too florid, is easy, agreeable, and occasionally vigorous; and there can be no doubt that he is very much in earnest, a matter of no small value in these days of indifferentism.

It is to be regretted that the present work, like Mr. Porter's former books, is disfigured by partiality for the Druses, and a bitter hostility to the Arabs. Everything Muslim is hateful to our author; and he therefore includes the Arabs, whether of the desert or the towns, in a sweeping denunciation. For the Druses he has an amazing and inexplicable regard. The Druses are not Christians; and the most reasonable theory is that they profess a heretical form of Mahommedanism. Yet Mr. Porter lavishes all the laudatory adjectives at his command upon them, while the unfortunate Arabs are treated with the very opposites. This partiality is carried to such an excess that, when speaking of the massacres of 1860, he can find no words strong enough to express his just indignation at the cruelty of the Muslim (Syrian and Arab) population of Damascus and the perfidy of the Turkish officials, while he scarcely lets the reader know that the Druses at Deyr-el-Kamar, and elsewhere, did exactly the same as the Muslim townspeople. He has not a word of praise for the noble Abd-el-Kader, who showed the generosity of the Arab character in the part he took in saving, at great risk to himself, those unhappy Christians of Damascus who survived the first outbreak, though we would ask him to give an instance of a Druse who acted in a similar manner. Those vile fanatics are conscious of the power of England and France, and wisely cultivate western travellers; but we would beg all who are likely to imagine that they are fair representatives of the wild population of the East, to observe that their massacres of the Maronites can only be paralleled in the atrocities perpetrated by the Kurds, and that the true Bedawree, as known to us in the pages of Burckhardt and Layard, and in his own literature, is too honourable to slay the unarmed, and make such war as has disgraced the Muslims of Turkey and India, and has been nowhere imitated in the old world by nations pretending to civilization.

CARLYLE'S FREDERICK THE GREAT.*

(SECOND NOTICE.)

We have hitherto followed rather closely the operations of the Seven Years' War. In no other way could we have conveyed any adequate impression of Frederick's marvellous rapidity, energy, pertinacity, and fertility of resource. But we must touch far more lightly upon the remaining campaigns. In the early part of 1760, fortune was still unfavourable to the hard-pressed King. The defeat of Fouquet opened Silesia to the Austrians; the siege of Dresden was vainly undertaken by Frederick himself; and Prince Henry was unable to arrest the progress of the Russians, who took, although they could not hold, Berlin. But in August came the victory of Liegnitz, and in October that of Torgau. The tide was stemmed, if not turned; and, although the resources of Prussia were by this time fearfully exhausted, the other belligerents were not in a much better plight. The campaign of 1761 was chiefly remarkable for the siege and capture of Schweidnitz, in Silesia, by Loudon. In other quarters Frederick held his own; and the hour of his deliverance was now near at hand. The close of the year brought him good news from St. Petersburg. The Czarina Elizabeth died on the 5th of January, 1762, and was succeeded by Peter III., who had long been a sworn friend and adviser of the King. The new sovereign did not lose a moment in reversing the policy of his predecessor. Not only was peace signed between Russia and Prussia, but a treaty of alliance was concluded between Frederick and his Muscovite hero-worshipper. The fair prospect thus opened was indeed soon clouded by the palace revolution, in which Peter lost both his life and his crown. But, after some slight hesitation, Catherine, who had now become Empress, decided upon maintaining the alliance which her murdered husband had formed; and Frederick was finally released from the fear of a Russian invasion. Still, he could accomplish nothing of importance during 1762, and he had once more to retire into winter quarters without having gained much; but, on the other hand, without having sustained any material check. The truth was that the war had nearly worn itself out. All the parties to it were wearied and exhausted by efforts which, in Germany at any rate, had produced no decisive result. England and France were already on the point of signing peace. It was clear to the Austrian statesmen that a task which they could not accomplish when aided by powerful allies, was entirely beyond their scope when standing alone. As for Frederick, he desired nothing so much as to give his country the repose she sorely needed. Accordingly, after a very brief negotiation, the treaty of Hubertsburg (between Prussia, Austria, and Saxony) was signed on the 10th of February, 1763, and "the third Silesian or Seven Years' War was completely finished." "It had cost, in loss of human lives first of all, nobody can say what; according to Frederick's computation there had perished of actual fighters, on the various fields, of all the nations, 853,000; of which above the fifth part, or 180,000, is his own share; and, by misery and ravage, the general population of Prussia finds itself 500,000 fewer; nearly the ninth man missing." And after

all this slaughter, Austria and Prussia retained the territories which they respectively possessed before the outbreak of the war. But the former Power was thus far a gainer, that her possession of Silesia was confirmed by the treaty of peace, and was never after questioned.

With the peace of Hubertsburg terminates Mr. Carlyle's continuous narrative. "What we have henceforth to produce is," in his own words, "more of a loose appendix of papers than of a finished narrative. Loose papers which we hope the reader can be made to understand and tolerate; more we cannot do for him." In how fragmentary a manner the remainder of Frederick's life is dealt with by his biographer, may be gathered from the fact that to the last twenty-three years of his life no more than 350 pages are devoted. It is indeed evident enough that Mr. Carlyle's patience failed him when the dramatic interest of Frederick's career ceased, and his hero settled down into something approaching a common-place king. The rest of the book is not only fragmentary, but often tedious and obscure. There are few or none of those sallies of humour,—those grotesque ebullitions of ponderous fun,—to which Mr. Carlyle gives way when his spirits are high, and he takes pleasure in his work. The obvious weariness with which he plods on to the end can scarcely fail to communicate itself to the reader, who will, we suspect, in most cases, be found ready enough to echo the sigh of satisfaction with which the author lays down his pen. The miscellaneous and disconnected character of the latter part of the sixth volume compels us to imitate the author, by making a somewhat arbitrary selection of the points which strike us as most worthy of notice. Frederick's first care, on the restoration of peace, was to repair the ravages of war. The country was in a deplorable condition. The coinage was debased; husbandry had been neglected; provinces had been laid waste; and the population had been seriously diminished by repeated drafts for the supply of the army. The King was not a disciple of the *laissez-faire* system, any more than he was of the system of free-trade, whose shibboleth, according to Mr. Carlyle, was—"God is great, and Plugson of Undershot is his prophet. Thus saith the Lord: Buy in the cheapest market, sell in the dearest." The case seemed to him one for the active intervention of the Government, and he lost not a moment in setting to work:—

"Friedrich found that he must at once step in with active remedies, and on all hands to make the impossible possible. Luckily he had in readiness, as usual, the funds for an Eighth Campaign, had such been needed. Out of these moneys he proceeded to rebuild the Towns and Villages: 'from the Corn-Stores (*granaries d'abondance*), Government establishments gathered from plentiful harvests against scarce, according to old rule)' were taken the supplies for food of the people and sowing of the ground: the horses intended for the artillery, baggage, and commissariat, 60,000 horses we have heard, 'were distributed among those who had none, to be employed in the tillage of the land. Silesia was discharged from all taxes for six months; Pommern and the Neumark for two years. A sum of about Three Million sterling (in *thalers* 20,389,000) 'was given for relief of the Provinces, and as acquittance of the impositions the Enemy had wrung from them.'

"Great as was this expense, it was necessary and indispensable. The condition of these Provinces after the Peace of Hubertsburg recalled what we know of them when the Peace of Münster closed the famous Thirty-Years War. On that occasion the State failed of help from want of means; which put it out of the Great Elector's power to assist his people: and what happened? That a whole century elapsed before his Successors could restore the Towns and Champaigns to what they were. This impressive example was admonitory to the King: that to repair the Public Calamities, assistance must be prompt and effective. Repeated gifts (*largesses*) restored courage to the poor Husbandmen, who began to despair of their lot; by the helps given, hope in all classes sprang up anew: encouragement of labour produced activity; love of Country rose again with fresh life: in a word' (within the second year in a markedly hopeful manner, and within seven years altogether), 'the fields were cultivated again, manufacturers had resumed their work; and the Police, once more in vigour, corrected by degrees the vices that had taken root during the time of anarchy.'

His efforts were crowned with considerable success; and in a short time he had the satisfaction of seeing his country on the high road to prosperity. But even Mr. Carlyle is forced to admit that all his economical and fiscal schemes (to which, by-the-way, he alludes very cursorily) did not turn out well. The system of excise which he adopted from France was amongst others an unmistakable failure, and involved him in great although temporary unpopularity. How well he bore that unpopularity, we learn from an anecdote, which throws some incidental light upon his character:—

"Once, during the time of the Regie (which lasted from 1766 to 1786 and the King's death: no other date assignable, though 1768, or so, may be imaginable for our purpose), as the King came riding along the Jäger Strasse, there was visible near what is called the Fürstenhaus (kind of Berlin *Somerset-House*) a great crowd of people. 'See what it is!' the King sent his one attendant, a heiduc or groom, into it, to learn what it was. 'They have something posted up about your Majesty,' reported the groom; and Frederick, who by this time had ridden forward, took a look at the thing; which was a Caricature figure of himself: King in very melancholy guise, seated on a Stool, a Coffee-mill between his knees; diligently grinding with the one hand, and with the other picking up any bean that might have fallen. 'Hang it lower,' said the King, beckoning his groom with a wave of the finger: 'Lower, that they may not have to hurt their necks about it!' No sooner were the words spoken, which spread instantly, than

* History of Frederick II. of Prussia, called Frederick the Great. By Thomas Carlyle. Vols. V. & VI. London: Chapman & Hall.

there rose from the whole crowd one universal huzzah of joy. They tore the Caricature into a thousand pieces, and rolled after the King with loud 'Lebe hoch, Our Freidrich for ever!' as he rode slowly away."

It should be added, while we are on this point, that he seems to have been sincerely desirous to avoid taxation that would press with undue severity upon the poorer classes. Most of his economical plans were, indeed, intended for their benefit, but unfortunately the result was in many cases exactly what might have been expected from his ignorance of that "dismal science" which his biographer holds in such sovereign contempt.

The most important event in the part of Frederick's life with which we are now concerned, was unquestionably the partition of Poland. As might have been anticipated, Mr. Carlyle stoutly defends that measure. "Poland," he says, "was now dead or moribund, and had well deserved to die. Anarchies are not permitted in this world." Whether the existence of anarchy in a country justifies its neighbours in simply lopping off such provinces as they find it convenient to annex, leaving the rest in exactly the same state as before, is a question which we cannot now stay to argue, and one which we may safely leave most people to answer for themselves. It is more interesting to inquire what was Frederick's exact share in the transaction, and how he came to be mixed up with it. In order to do this, we must go back to the close of the Seven Years' war. The events of that struggle had evidently given the King of Prussia a high, if not an inordinate, idea of the power of Russia. His natural course as a German sovereign would have been to unite with Austria against the semi-Oriental power which was impending over both; but the conquest of Silesia stood in the way of this course, and the only alternative left was to form a close alliance with Russia. By these means Frederick might at least hope to prevent her again coalescing with the South German State. Accordingly, in the year following the peace of Hubertsburg a treaty was signed between the courts of St. Petersburg and Berlin, whereby each guaranteed the other against the aggressions of third parties, and contracted to afford mutual assistance (to the extent of 12,000 men, or money in lieu) in case either should get engaged in war with any neighbour. Thus bound to the assistance of Russia, it was impossible for Frederick to remain an unconcerned spectator of any war in which she might become, or might appear likely to become, engaged. He might indeed have been content to watch events in Poland, had not the interference of Catherine on behalf of the Dissidents led to a war between Russia and Turkey. As soon, however, as the bigoted Roman Catholic faction found themselves getting the worst of the contest, they appealed to the Porte to aid them in tyrannizing over their fellow Christians, and in resisting the power which was then figuring as the champion of toleration. They did not appeal in vain; but the only result was to bring disaster upon the Sultan, whose territories were rapidly overrun by the conquering Muscovites. That, however, did not suit Austria. She threatened much; and in those days she was capable of doing something. A war between her and Russia loomed in the near distance, and into such a war Prussia was certain to be drawn. But war was the very last thing which Frederick desired, and he therefore cast about for some means by which it could be averted. The likeliest mode seemed to be such a partition of Poland as would strengthen Russia, bribe Austria to connive at some moderate dismemberment of Turkey, and at the same time give Prussia an additional province. That the first suggestion to this effect was made by Frederick to the Czarina in the winter of 1769-70 Mr. Carlyle admits; but he urges that it was thrown away upon her Majesty, and that the scheme eventually carried out was practically initiated by the Court of St. Petersburg in 1771. We may, however, be permitted to doubt whether the idea thrown out by the King of Prussia was ever really lost sight of by the Empress of Russia, although she may have postponed its execution for a time. These two things are at any rate certain—that Frederick was a willing, and not, like Maria Theresa, an unwilling, accomplice in the partition of Poland, and that he became such from the most selfish and commonplace of political considerations. He averted a temporary danger, but he did so at the cost of permanently increasing the power of the only State from which Prussia had anything to fear. The subsequent history of the country, and the degrading subservience of its rulers to the Court of St. Petersburg, furnishes the best commentary upon the wisdom of such a policy.

In 1778, Frederick once more fell out with Austria; the subject of controversy being the succession to the Electorate of Bavaria, which the Emperor Joseph was bent upon annexing to his own dominions. But, although war was declared, and there was much marching and counter-marching, no battle was fought. Neither party was disposed to push matters to extremity; and after a single campaign peace was signed, through the mediation of Russia, on the basis of the *status quo*. Frederick, however, was practically successful, for Bavaria remained an independent State.

The remaining years of the King's life were uneventful; but, although he was now growing old, he did not relax in his attention to the details of either civil or military administration. "Industrial matters, that of colonies especially, of drainages, embankments, and reclaiming of waste lands," were a large item in his business. To the last he was energetic, laborious, unsparing of himself and of others. Against asthma, dropsy, erysipelas, and continual want of sleep, he bore up for many months; sitting day and night in an easy armchair, and unable to get breath in any

other posture. On the morning of the 17th of August, 1786, he passed away, in the forty-seventh year of his reign and the seventy-fifth of his age. He left behind him a sorrowing people, who overlooked his faults, and dwelt proudly on his great and heroic qualities. Under his reign, the boundaries of the State had been materially enlarged; Prussia had played an important part on the world's stage; and, after much suffering and many misfortunes, her condition, at the time of his death, was one of apparent prosperity. But it was to be seen hereafter how weak she really was when the sustaining hand of a great man was withdrawn. Able and sagacious as Frederick was, he was nevertheless a man of limited ideas. He belonged essentially to an age which he had outlived, and he did nothing to prepare his country for that which was to follow. He made the State powerful, but he did not create a self-reliant and vigorous people. As a statesman, his views were narrow, and never extended beyond the exigencies of the moment. As a soldier, he can hardly claim more than a very high place amongst generals of the second rank; but as a man he well earned the title of "Great" by unconquerable tenacity of purpose and of will, by energy that no difficulty could paralyze, and by fortitude that no disaster could overcome.

A JAPANESE STORY.*

As we have never heard of "Mona" as a Christian name before, and do not know what "B." stands for in the particular instance before us, we are thus far at a loss to determine the sex of the writer of this "Japanese Story;" a difficulty always perplexing to a reviewer, since he does not know what to do with his personal pronouns, nor whether to say "Mr.," "Mrs.," or "Miss." It is true that the final vowel in "Mona" has a feminine look; but our Anglo-Saxon ancestors did not follow Latin rule, and "Mona" may be a name of native growth, and a masculine one. Nevertheless, judging by a fondness which the story-teller exhibits for superfluous italics, and also by a certain innocence of style, we have ventured to conclude that we stand in the presence of a lady. We shall also assume that the lady is young, interesting, inexperienced in the world, and unmarried—in all which we trust there will be no offence; and shall therefore, if occasion require it, speak of her as "Miss Bickerstaffe." Surely none but a gentle pen could have written this sentence, with its coaxing little emphasis on the writer's pet words:—

"It is now our privilege to find footing on Japanese soil, again the emblem of the cross (as borne on England's banner) is received with favour by the Government, and we can only hope that in our commercial dealings with the 'Land of the Rising Sun' the 'greed of gain' may not be paramount, and the cause of religion forgotten, but, inasmuch as our faith is the *purest* form of Christianity, so those who profess it may, by the purity of their lives and conduct, and the gentleness and honesty of their dealing, again win over the Japanese to trust the stranger, and believe in the stranger's God."

The story, which is introduced by six pages of introductory remarks after the above fashion, is founded on the efforts made by the Portuguese Jesuits in the middle of the sixteenth century to establish the Christian religion in the country of the Mikado and the Tycoon. The authoress admits that the Roman Catholic form of Christianity is, upon the whole, a very naughty form; but she cannot deny that many of the Portuguese missionaries of three hundred years ago were excellent, self-devoted men, sincerely desirous of spreading their faith in one of the most interesting countries of the East. That many of the Jesuits who went out to Japan were animated by worldly motives, and that the Papacy, in encouraging the movement, was not devoid of a secular greed after new subjects as a compensation for the loss of England and the other Protestant States, is not concealed by the present writer; but she fairly admits the courage, sincerity, and spirit of sacrifice exhibited by many of the priests who carried the symbols and the doctrines of their creed into lands remote from the great centres of European civilization, and as yet all-but unknown to the Western world. This apportionment of praise and blame is doubtless in perfect accordance with the facts; and we have therefore no fault whatever to find with the spirit in which the book is written. Of its value as a literary performance we cannot speak highly. The writer has apparently "crammed" on all the facts of Japanese history, manners, habits, costumes, &c., in a most industrious and conscientious fashion; but she is utterly devoid of that power which genius possesses, of entering into the very spirit of distant and unusual modes of existence, and thus of making the reader live the life of those among whom he is, for the time being, mentally thrown. We find a good many Japanese words and proper names introduced into the text, accompanied by foot-notes, explaining the meaning of them. The Daimio travels in a "norimoni;" the wayfarers put up at "honjens;" the attendants on the great man intoxicate themselves with "saki;" the religious pilgrims pay their respects to the "bonzes;" the earth is shaken with a "dsi-sin-nai;" and gentlemen bid each other farewell with the exclamation "Saionara!" But, through all this elaboration of detail, we find no spirit of vitality identifying us with the life of the far East, and enabling us really to estimate what state of society that was in which so energetic an attempt was made to plant the religion and the ideas of Europe—an attempt which progressed considerably for awhile, but which in the end was as unsuc-

* Araki the Daimio. A Japanese Story of the Olden Time. By Mona B. Bickerstaffe. London: Jackson, Walford, & Hodder.

cessful as all other efforts of the like kind prosecuted under similar conditions. The style, moreover, is poor, essentially commonplace, and occasionally inelegant, as when we read of "jolly beggars," "a regular row," "the latter were not going to be insulted with impunity," "come to grief," &c. We fear that Miss Bickerstaffe must have entrusted her manuscript to the revision of one of her brothers, who has endeavoured to strengthen its style by the introduction of a few of his own masculine phrases. Sometimes, the writer seems to have thought more of effect than of sense; as when we are told that Araki, the Daimio, being enraged at a certain matter, gave no sign of anger in his countenance, although it appears that his lip quivered, a "deadly paleness" overspread his face, and a "malign expression" sat in his eye. Again, we read of a Japanese army sent out to conquer a neighbouring country, in which conquest they succeed, though "few of them ever saw their native shores again." If this means, as we suppose it does, that they were very nearly exterminated, we are at a loss to conceive how they managed to conquer their enemies. The character of the Daimio, the chief person in the book, is that of a mere dark, melodramatic villain; while Ama, the pretty daughter of Sako Miyako, and a convert to Christianity, who moves the Daimio's wrath at once by embracing the Western faith and refusing his offer of marriage, is simply an uninteresting young lady, in whose fortunes and misfortunes we find ourselves unable to feel any solicitude. We have scenes of persecution of the Christians, of slaughtering and terror; but we cannot say that our pulses are at all quickened. Finally, we have vice foiled, virtue triumphant, and Miss Ama Miyako married at Macao to Camoens, the Portuguese poet! Those who like a sermon in the guise of a story will admire "Araki the Daimio;" but, considered as a fiction, the work is a failure.

SIGNOR GIORGINI ON THE PAPACY.*

It is very certain that the Papedom must not look to Italians for its chief supporters. No man is a prophet in his own house; and the Italians have seen and felt too much of the bitterness of Papal oppression to be enthusiastic about the temporal power of the Pontiff. The Romans have at all times been notorious for the freedom of their opinions with respect to those who profess to be the successors of St. Peter; and Italians generally—allowing, of course, for individual exceptions—were never conspicuous for that fervid tone of Papistical allegiance which we find in Spain and Portugal, and, at certain times and among certain classes, even in France, notwithstanding the frequent tendency of French intellect towards scepticism. We do not mean to say that the Italians are inclined to look with favour on what we understand by Protestantism. Converts in this direction have indeed been made of late years; but it must be conceded that the austerity of Protestant worship is repellent to the generality of Southern minds, which require stronger appeals to the emotional part of their nature, and a greater satisfaction of their sense of beauty. The antagonism of the Italian intellect to the Papacy is not so much on grounds of abstract sentiment or doctrine as on political grounds. It is not the Pope, but the Pope-King, that they oppose. This bitterness of feeling has never entirely destroyed their religious faith, but it has certainly checked its expression. Accordingly, we must look to other Roman Catholic countries than Italy for the most vigorous attempts to uphold by argument the tottering fortunes of the Vatican. We saw such an attempt but recently in the remarks made by Monseigneur Dupanloup, Bishop of Orleans, on the rabid Encyclical of last December; and we now behold a member of the Italian Parliament answering the Bishop in a pamphlet as remarkable for the boldness of its tone as for the force of its reasoning. Signor Giorgini, the author of this pamphlet, is the deputy for Sienna, and a literary man of great repute, being considered one of the first political writers of his country. He is the son-in-law of the celebrated Alessandro Manzoni, and has for some years been identified with the more moderate section of the patriotic party. Having shared in the national movements of 1859-60, he was in the latter year returned to Parliament, where he has made his power felt as one of the leaders of debate—his keen and incisive eloquence being always sure of having its effect. That he is no less trenchant with the pen, is proved by the pamphlet now in our hands, in which he has brought to bear on the arguments of Monseigneur Dupanloup so large an amount of historical knowledge, and so complete a mastery over logic, that any damage to the cause of Liberal ideas which the Bishop's sophistry might have threatened is completely nullified. Signor Giorgini's pamphlet is, in fact, an admirable vindication of modern philosophy, human freedom, and intellectual progress, against those doctrines of a by-gone age which the Encyclical vainly endeavoured to galvanize into life.

The concluding chapter, which has reference to the political rather than the theological aspects of the question, we will translate and lay before our readers. "What will Italy do?" asks Signor Giorgini; and he then proceeds:—

"I do not ask whether, to obtain possession of Rome, it is proper for her to compromise her position with France, and to run the risk of a war. The question does not stand thus. I reason as if I were certain that no one would attack Italy, and as if Italy, even if she were attacked, would be certain to be

victorious; and I ask if we have any interest in hastening a crisis for which Europe is so little prepared. I will start from the order of the day of Boncompagni, from the vote by which the Italian Chamber proclaimed Rome the capital of Italy. I will not enter into the examination of that vote. It was said that Rome was only a name; but for a thousand years everybody obeyed the name of Rome, from those Chiefs of the Huns and Vandals who, to their ruin, asked their titles of the Emperor of the World, to the revolutionists of '89, when Nouvet decreed the exile of a French prince, quoting from the Tribune a passage of Livy.

"When the Italians had to think of the choice of a capital, it was natural that their eyes should turn towards Rome; it was natural that the Chamber should take advantage of so lively and general a feeling, I do not say to decide, but to put an end to, to prevent from rising, a question which would give occasion for discord again in Italy. But how shall we go to Rome? Count Cavour said—'In concert with France, in concert with Catholic opinion'; and, after four years, after the Convention of the 15th of September, these words have lost none of their truth, or, I could almost say, their freshness.

"I would have Italy bear this truth well in mind—that, if the Pope is a bad Sovereign, he would be a better subject; that, if the existence of the Pope among us is a great difficulty, the Pope absent would not be a less serious one. I would have Italy well understand that the Pope, a Sovereign or a subject, present or absent, is a power against which physical force can do nothing: a power which no battle won, no city taken, could destroy: an invisible power, which the sword enters without injuring, which gets over the best-guarded walls, assails you in the very bosom of your family, and encamps in your inmost conscience. Slow in rising, and dying hard, such institutions as those of the political Papacy have their roots in public opinion, and last as long as the opinion which produced them exists. If the Pope, as is very probable, leaves Rome, his abnormal position will be a cause of inquietude to all the States of Europe, and a source of embarrassment; his misfortunes will make his wrong-doings forgotten, rekindle the zeal of a great number of Catholics, and gain the sympathy of all for him; for, at the last moment, weakness which does not defend itself, and greatness which is humiliated, revives.

"If, then, we were in Rome—if we were regarded as the only obstacle to the return of the Pope and the pacification of the Church—all these feelings would be turned against us. The possession of Rome would put us in an extremely difficult position with respect to Europe; and this opposition of Europe, giving our possession the character of an irregular and precarious fact, would be an incessant incentive to disorder and agitation. Under these circumstances, the possession of Rome would add nothing to our credit or our real power.

"If Italy wish to consolidate her institutions—if she wish to prove that a new power has arisen in the world, not to disturb the repose of the others, but to contribute the triumph of right and the pacific progress of ideas—the Convention of the 15th of September assigns her a much higher part. If a plan could be thought of by which the Pope, the honorary head, the nominal sovereign, of a free city, would find sufficient guarantee for the independence of his divine ministry, and a moral authority revered all the more as it would be if a stranger to all the cares of government and the struggles of political parties—a plan by which the part which Romans would take as individuals in the political life of the nation would be compatible with most extended liberties of their city—the principal difficulty would be removed.

"Doubtless this new position of the Pope would not fail to react on the constitution of Catholicism; but it is our interest that the Religious Reformation should not be made in our presence, that it should take place slowly, by degrees, by the force of opinion alone, without our taking any part in it, or being in any way responsible for it. And the day on which this reform will be completed, on which the relations between the Church and State will be regulated in such a way that the Pope will no longer be a political instrument, or an engine of war in the hands of any power whatever,—on that day all barriers will have been removed, and Rome will be reunited to Italy.

"These are our moral means; this is the way to go to Rome by the road indicated by Count Cavour—in concert with France, and in concert with Catholic opinion. The road may not be a very long one. According to a prophecy of the fourteenth century, after Pius IX. three other Popes are yet to sit in the chair of St. Peter. If the prophecy be true, and if those Popes do not live as long as St. Peter, Italy will soon have the capital she wants; and if, as the prophecy adds, both Rome and the world are then destroyed, we shall no longer want any capital; and then, but then alone, the question of the two Powers will be really put an end to."

Though hoping that Doomsday is not quite so near at hand as the latter half of the old prophecy would imply, we trust that that portion may be speedily verified which promises the extinction of a Power which has for so many centuries been the scourge of Italy and of the whole Christian world.

THE QUARTERLY REVIEWS.

The *Edinburgh* leads off with an article on M. Taine's "History of English Literature," in which great credit is bestowed on the writer for his cleverness and industry, though the tone and tendency of his book are severely condemned. Judging from the specimens of this "History" given by the reviewer, it appears to us to mingle a certain amount of truth with a far larger amount of flippant misrepresentation and shallow judgment. M. Taine seems to be afflicted with a true Frenchman's inability to comprehend English character and English thought; and, although he grants us some credit, his objections, not only to our literature, but to our nationality, our habits, and our climate, are in a much greater proportion. He reiterates

* Sopra un Opuscolo del Vescovo d'Orléans. Osservazioni di G. B. Giorgini, Deputato di Siena. Torino: Tipografia Cavour.

the old shallow charge as to our being gloomy and brutal in disposition; and these qualities, he conceives, are reflected in our literature, together with a Puritanical love of sermonizing. However, he admits that we have shown "a spirit of independence and freedom, and a grand sense of duty;" and this, after all, is no bad substitute for a more light and lively brilliance of style, and more sunny skies. Of M. Taine, perhaps the most complimentary thing that can be said is that at the early age of thirty-six he has acquired a knowledge of English literature of immense breadth and inclusiveness, extending from the age of Chaucer to the present day. The review gives an amusing summary of the original work; but it evades several points which it might have been interesting to discuss. The next article, on "Heraldic Manuals," we commend to the notice of those who make a hobby of genealogical studies: it is full of curious facts, but it is not very likely to attract the general reader. In strong contrast with this fanciful subject is the thoroughly practical character of the ensuing paper, which has reference to our Australian Colonies. We have here a good condensed history of those distant settlements in the extreme South, a concise account of the working of Australian institutions, and some remarks on the probable future course of legislation and colonial development in the almost independent States which we have called into being. The writer seems to consider that the local Governments have on the whole worked well; but he thinks that the retention of their connexion with the British Crown has been and is of great service, as being a bond of union between the several colonies, as giving to the commerce of the settlers the protection of the Imperial navy, and as insensibly checking the wild elements of a new and rough state of society by the traditions of an old and settled civilization. At the conclusion of the article we read:—

"These are considerations which it is for the colonists themselves to weigh. In our opinion, they will be found wholly favourable to them. Of one fact, however, they may rest firmly assured: the threat of separation has no terrors for English ears, and no blow will be struck, no drop of English blood shed, to maintain the tie a moment after they pronounce constitutionally that it is no longer associated with their interest and esteem. Until then we are bound to protect their shores; we are bound to see impartial justice maintained between colony and colony; and we are bound to strengthen the hands of each colony in the maintenance of internal law and order, should extraordinary circumstances demand it. But with these duties our powers end. To the Australians themselves has been committed the great task of government, and in their hands it must now remain. We may interfere to enforce their laws, but we can no longer interfere to make or unmake their laws. That duty has now devolved upon themselves, and as they attract their best men to the administration of public affairs, so will their success be measured. This is a test which we have already put forward in the course of these pages, and it may seem superfluous to repeat it now. Indeed, it is a test which may be applied to every system of government. Yet it is one which is peculiarly applicable to these Colonies, and we would wish to see it more fully impressed on all classes of their community. The Australians have seen the framework of self-government rising from its foundations before their eyes. Nay, they have seen the very elements of society itself blending and forming into a community around them. Though neither books nor professors have taught them political economy, the very atmosphere around them has suggested its most leading truths. Neither any of the older United States or the Canadas have seen communities grow up in a dozen years. California has seen it, but then California grew up in social disorder and chaos. To the Australian colonist alone has it been permitted to see the whole machinery of law and order put together within a very small portion of a lifetime. But they have seen more. They have seen that the few stump orators—and they were but few—who succeeded in gaining their votes, have played a part wholly obstructive in the Legislature, and neither built up, nor aided in building up, any one portion of the constitutional machinery. They see, too, that, with scarcely an exception, all the more influential of their fellow-colonists are the architects of their own positions, are by no means ignorant of their wants, and have not shown any absence of sympathy with those constituencies which returned them to the Legislature. These are elements which the more influential colonists might turn to advantage. It is scarcely to be expected that they will spare time from their private pursuits to engage in a public life which an extreme—and we think injurious—jealousy has left without reward; nor is there an unemployed landed class to supply their place. The difficulty is to find inducements of an honourable kind and of sufficient power to lead men of character, station, and ability to devote a large portion of their time to the public service. With such an element in colonial affairs, there is very little doubt that these Colonies will make a right use of the great prosperity which lies around them, and provide for that great future which lies before. But without it, let America declare on how dangerous a sea they embark."

A very interesting sketch follows of Madame Roland, one of the most remarkable women of the first French Revolution, who, from being in her girlhood an enthusiastic Papist, became afterwards an equally enthusiastic Voltairian, though always retaining a grand sense of duty, and a strong belief in natural religion; who combined Republican principles with intellectual pride; and who finally perished on the scaffold, with singular courage and dignity, on account of her identifying herself with the Girondists. The reviewer admits that there were many faults in the character of this conspicuous woman—faults more especially exhibited in her masculine defiance of conventional and received opinions; but he also finds in her "a sort of religious earnestness when scepticism and indifference reigned; a living sense of duty when impulse was obeyed as the only law; sensual passion trampled under foot

when all was license around; patriotism and the love of liberty over-ruling all other feelings." From Madame Roland we pass on to a review of Mr. Lecky's "Influence of Rationalism," which is highly praised, though the critic differs on some points from his author. By "Rationalism," Mr. Lecky does not simply mean those free-thinking opinions in matters of religion which during the last half-century have been imported from Germany, but that tendency to judge all questions by reason, rather than by authority, which, first set in motion at the period of the Reformation, has gone on steadily increasing to the present time. In commanding this tendency, Mr. Lecky and his critic are at one; but the former is more extreme in his views than the latter. In the article on "The Church and Mosque of St. Sophia," we have a most admirable and entertaining account of the building of that beautiful early Christian edifice by the Greek Emperor Justinian; of its glory and prosperity for several centuries as the head quarters of the Greek Church; and of its conversion into a Mahometan mosque by the Turks on the taking of Constantinople in 1453. The closing scene of its existence as a Christian fane is thus described by the reviewer:—

"The Christian history of St. Sophia terminates with that fatal moment when the conquering Mahomet at the head of his 'vizirs, bashaws, and guards,' each of whom, in the words of one of the historians, 'was robust as Hercules, dexterous as Apollo, and equal in battle to any ten ordinary mortals,' rode to the great door, and, with difficulty forcing a passage through the horror-stricken crowd, advanced to the high altar and took possession of it in the name of Islam, with the well-known formula: 'There is no God but God, and Mahomet is the prophet of God.' Even for the material structure itself, the work of destruction far exceeded all that had gone before, although Gibbon, with much truth, if with much bitterness, remarks that the example of sacrilege was imitated from the Latin conquerors of Constantinople. The narrative of Phranza is deeply pathetic. In his highly-wrought phrase, 'the earthly heaven, the second firmament, the vehicle of the cherubim, the throne and the glory of God,' was despoiled of the accumulated oblations of ages of pious munificence, and 'the gold and silver, the pearls and jewels, the vases and sacerdotal ornaments, were most wickedly converted to the service of mankind. After the divine images had been stripped of all that could be valuable to a profane eye, the canvass, or the wood, was torn, or broken, or burnt, or trodden under foot, or applied, in the stables or the kitchen, to the vilest uses.'

"The memories of that dreadful day still linger in the whispered traditions of the Greeks of Constantinople. A red streak on one of the pillars is pointed out as the mark of the extent of the carnage, and is reputed to have been made by Mahomet himself, who is said to have been able, standing on the heaped-up dead, to reach to this height with his bloody hand. A still more popular tradition is attached to a closed-up door through which it is said that the priest who was celebrating the mass at the moment when the Turks burst into the church, escaped, with the sacred elements and the most precious relics of the sanctuary. It was in vain that the Turks attempted to pursue him. The door closed behind him. All efforts to force it were fruitless; the priest was seen no more by human eyes; but he is to return once again on the day of retribution, when, under the judgment of God, the crescent shall fall, and the ancient church of Justinian shall again be restored to the long-deserted worship of the Divine Wisdom. We may add that the mysterious door remained undisturbed till the late restoration of the building, when it was found to lead to a narrow passage blocked up with masses of rubbish and evidently long disused.

"On the Friday which followed the storming of the city, the new ritual of St. Sophia was publicly inaugurated. Mahomet, having assembled his troops in the great market-place, Aksarai, marched in military array to the church. The imam preached from the ambo: the Sultan himself performed the *namaz* of prayer and thanksgiving on the great altar so lately hallowed by the last Christian celebration of the eucharistic sacrifice; and the muezzin proclaimed from the Venetian bell-tower the *ezan*, which has never failed from that day: 'God is the Most High! there is no God but God, and Mahomet is the prophet of God! Come to the Place of Tranquillity! come to the Asylum of Salvation!'"

It is satisfactory to be reminded that the late Sultan Abdul Medjid thoroughly repaired, and in some respects restored, this ancient and profoundly interesting edifice (which was then in a state of extreme dilapidation), and that, with great liberality, he allowed Christian architects to make a complete examination of the building, and refused to destroy some old mosaics which were accidentally discovered, though he was compelled, in obedience to Mahometan fanaticism, to cover them again with plaster.

The article on Dumont de Bostaquet should be read as a companion to that on Madame Roland. Bostaquet was a French, or rather a Norman, Huguenot who fled from his native country in consequence of the persecution of the Protestants by Louis XIV., became a soldier of our William III., and, after taking part in the Revolution of 1688, and fighting at the Battle of the Boyne, ended his life in the French colony of Portarlington, Ireland. The Memoirs on which this article is founded are autobiographical, and, though they were only published in full for the first time last year, they had already furnished materials to M. Michelet in his work on the reign of Louis XIV., and to Lord Macaulay in his "History of England." The review presents a very pleasing *résumé* of the original work. In the essay on "Tuscan Sculpture," which follows, we find some judicious remarks on the beautiful creations in marble which we owe to the genius of Michael Angelo and the other great Florentines of that age, which went far towards emulating the greatest achievements of antiquity. The Italian sculptors of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries did not simply imitate the figures

of the Greeks, but, working in a kindred spirit of truth and ideality, adapted their ideas to the requirements of the Christian faith, and thus produced a new development of sculpture which gave them a distinct standing in the history of art. M. Guizot's "Méditations sur l'Essence de la Religion Chrétienne" afford the text for a discussion of modern heresies, and of the latitude accorded by the recent judicial decisions in the cases of Dr. Williams, Mr. Wilson, and Dr. Colenso. The writer agrees with those decisions, and contends that, as the Thirty-nine Articles are silent as to the precise amount of inspiration of the Bible—as they say not a word with respect to infallibility or verbal dictation, but only affirm that "Holy Scripture containeth all things necessary to salvation"—a considerable breadth of interpretation is permitted to the clergy of the Church of England. He shows that many of the early Fathers of the Christian Church admitted that there were some things in the Bible which were impossible and of no use; and he asks why modern divines and thinkers are to have less liberty. The paper is very ably written; but the argument is rather that of a lawyer than that of a philosophical observer and critic. The letter of the law may be as the writer states, and a lawyer is perfectly justified in taking advantage of ambiguities and omissions; but we think there can be little doubt that the framers of the Thirty-nine Articles never meant to sanction any great latitude of belief as to the authority of the Old and New Testaments, and we confess we do not see the possibility of a middle ground between affirming the plenary inspiration of those volumes, and denying their inspiration, in any supernatural sense, altogether.

In the final article of the number, the Patent Law is subjected to a laborious examination, and utterly condemned. The writer denies that the proposed modifications of the law would be of any service, and accordingly favours the bolder policy of entirely sweeping away this lingering form of "Protection."

A history of the Galleries of the Louvre forms the subject of the first article in the *Quarterly*. Perhaps the most interesting part of this article is that which, towards the close, describes the negotiations with reference to the return of the various objects of art taken away by the victorious armies of Napoleon I. from different European capitals. After the restoration of the Bourbons in 1815, these pictures, pieces of sculpture, bronzes, &c., were sent back to their former possessors, chiefly in consequence of the earnest representations of England, though not without strong opposition on the part of the French nation, and even of Louis XVIII. The reviewer entirely approves of the return of the works to their respective capitals; but the vexation of the French people was of course extremely natural. The second article is devoted to the early French printers, the Stephens—men interesting not only for their connexion with a great art in its comparatively infantine days (viz., in the sixteenth century), but for their scholarship, and for their profession of Protestantism at a time when the reformed faith had no bad chance of establishing itself among the French people. The novels and poems of Sir Bulwer Lytton are next made the subject of a very eulogistic criticism, in which a far higher position as a poet is accorded to the right honourable baronet than we are disposed to agree with. "French Education" is the subject of a very fair and careful article, towards the close of which the writer says:—

"Our belief is that unless the future reforms shall meet the four principal evils that we have specified, the undue length of the time of study, the unsuitableness of the *Maitre d'Etudes*, the temptations offered to the Professor to neglect the heavy majority in favour of the lively few, the want of a less democratic bifurcation than that of the *Enseignement Professionnel*, private establishments will become more and more in vogue, and diverge more and more from the Government model. The Collège Chaptal, which at present amounts to 600 boarders and 400 day-scholars, and which is the property of the ville de Paris, has made a move in the right direction, with regard to the last complaint. It offers an education which is intellectual, but at the same time useful for those who have no vocation for special learning; while for the abridgment of the hours we expect great things from the example of the International College which is soon to be established in France; for we observe that in the programme of studies, which M. Barbier has drawn up in his able prize-essay, a very refreshing gap is left for play and gymnastics. It does not come within the scope of this article to discuss the advantages offered by the plan which he advocates; but we cannot forbear uttering a hope that there will be a generous and hearty encouragement given to the experiment, as such, on both sides of the Channel, so that we may be able to ascertain by a fair trial whether this plan will yield us those two most desirable results at which it aims, the fostering of an international spirit, and the effectual teaching of modern languages. But whether destined to be reformed or not, such is the discipline and such are the methods of teaching under which the present generation of Frenchmen have grown up to be what they are. For how many of their defects the system is answerable, or how many of their merits it can claim as of its own making, is a curious and somewhat delicate problem. It is, for instance, very difficult to say whether that consideration and good-breeding which they show when unexcited is due in any degree to the want of that buoyant intercourse of play at school, which certainly does sometimes lead to roughness and unkindness of manner; or is the politeness itself insisted on from the very earliest childhood, so as to become ingrained like a religion, because parents believe it to be an indispensable precaution against those rougher contacts by which the national character is ignited in an instant.

"On another topic we can speak more positively. The formation of habits of truth, honesty, and manly frankness, are surely first and foremost among all the objects of education. Now, it will be conceded by the French themselves that these qualities may be evoked

and strengthened by judicious confidence, and stunted by habitual espial and distrust. If, therefore, their system of education, instead of smelling from first to last of the police-office, were one of wisely-graduated probation, as they are capable of responding to generous treatment, and capable of self-respect (else how could they possess that great personal courage?), much more would be done for the cultivation of these high and noble qualities than is now done in French places of education."

A short article on "Our Ships and Guns" discusses their defects and the remedy; severely blames the present Government for having "stayed the course of administrative reform, so wisely, so temperately, so judiciously planned and commenced by Lord Derby;" and gives expression to a hope that, on the return to power of the Conservative leader, one of his first acts will be to carry out the views explained by Sir John Pakington before the Admiralty Committee in 1862, so as entirely to remodel the government of the navy. "The Bishop of London's Fund" is the title of another rather brief paper, containing some very interesting facts. The Fund, in the opinion of the writer, has done very great good among the poor and ignorant of the metropolis; but it is languishing for want of contributions adequate to the work it has undertaken, and the reviewer points out a fact already stated in these columns by our Special Church Commissioner, viz., that the number of donors in this wealthy capital to works of charity and religion is "lamentably and shamefully small." The essay on "Clerical Subscription" is, of course, in favour of the retention of subscription, as the only means of maintaining a definite creed in the Church. Vámbéry's "Travels in Central Asia"—a work with which our readers are already acquainted—is next reviewed; an article on "Libel and the Freedom of the Press" follows, in which several recent cases are analysed, and the conclusion is arrived at that, notwithstanding a few blemishes, the law as it now stands is "a noble monument of the honesty and wisdom of our Legislature and courts of justice;" and the number winds up with a political manifesto on "Political Reform," mainly founded on the new editions of Earl Russell's "Essay on the History of the English Government and Constitution," and of Earl Grey's "Parliamentary Government considered with Reference to Reform"—a manifesto stuffed full of Tory prejudices and fears.

The principle article in the *Westminster* is the long-talked-of essay by Mr. John Stuart Mill on "The Positive Philosophy of Auguste Comte." The article is signed by the author's initials, and bears evidence throughout of the profound and exact thinker. We are promised at a future period a further examination of the great French philosopher's ideas and systems, the present article being devoted to his chief and most widely-known work—that which aims at creating a science of "Sociology"—to the exclusion of those writings which he produced during the last ten years of his life. It is of course impossible for us in an incidental notice to offer anything like a summary of so weighty an article on so abstruse a subject—an article, moreover, extending to the unusual length of sixty-seven pages. We must therefore be content to give the reader the general idea that Mr. Mill, while holding his author in high respect, and defending him from certain misconceptions more especially prevalent in England, expresses entire dissent from several of his conclusions. An Englishman desiring to acquaint himself with the leading doctrines of Comte could not do better than carefully peruse this elaborate and conscientious criticism; and all such readers will unquestionably look forward with eager anticipation to the ensuing paper or papers on the same subject. One passage, giving an outline of Comte's scheme of "Sociology," we cannot refrain from quoting:—

"A corporation of philosophers, receiving a modest support from the State, surrounded by reverence, but peremptorily excluded not only from all political power or employment, but from all riches, and all occupations, except their own, are to have the entire direction of education: together with, not only the right and duty of advising and reprobating all persons respecting both their public and their private life, but also a control (whether authoritative or only moral is not defined) over the speculative class itself, to prevent them from wasting time and ingenuity on inquiries and speculations of no value to mankind (among which he includes many now in high estimation) and compel them to employ all their powers on the investigations which may be judged, at the time, to be the most urgently important to the general welfare. The temporal government which is to co-exist with this spiritual authority, consists of an aristocracy of capitalists, whose dignity and authority are to be in the ratio of the degree of generality of their conceptions and operations—bankers at the summit, merchants next, then manufacturers, and agriculturists at the bottom of the scale. No representative system, or other popular organization, by way of counterpoise to this governing power, is ever contemplated. The checks relied upon for preventing its abuse are the counsels and remonstrances of the Spiritual Power, and unlimited liberty of discussion and comment by all classes of inferiors. Of the mode in which either set of authorities should fulfil the office assigned to it, little is said in this treatise; but the general idea is, while regulating as little as possible by law, to make the pressure of opinion, directed by the Spiritual Power, so heavy on every individual, from the humblest to the most powerful, as to render legal obligation, in as many cases as possible, needless. Liberty and spontaneity on the part of individuals form no part of the scheme. M. Comte looks on them with as great jealousy as any scholastic pedagogue, or ecclesiastical director of consciences. Every particular of conduct, public or private, is to be open to the public eye, and to be kept, by the power of opinion, in the course which the Spiritual corporation shall judge to be the most right.

"This is not a sufficiently tempting picture to have much chance

of making converts rapidly, and the objections to the scheme are too obvious to need stating. Indeed, it is only thoughtful persons to whom it will be credible, that speculations leading to this result can deserve the attention necessary for understanding them."

The article on "St. John's Gospel" is written with a view to proving that John the Apostle did not write the fourth Gospel; that it is the production of the century following that in which Christ and his Apostles lived; that the probable proximate date is A.D. 150, though it may possibly have been written ten or twenty years earlier; and that the author is unknown. In a paper on "Parliamentary Reform," a hope is expressed that Mr. Gladstone will put himself at the head of the coming Reform movement, lest the Ministry be not led "but driven to the goal," though the writer is not without a fear that the well-known hesitation of that statesman will cause him to hang back at the last. "The Canadian Confederation" forms the subject of a valuable essay, giving an account of the growth and present position of our North American Colonies, the Federal union of which, the writer considers, will be among "the most splendid achievements of the present generation;" and the other articles of the number are a paper on the codification of English law, a stinging attack on the writings of Sir Bulwer Lytton, and the usual summary of "Contemporary Literature," English and Foreign.

We have not left ourselves space to speak in detail of the other Reviews which we have received—viz., the *London Quarterly*, the *British Quarterly*, and the *Dublin*. Each, however, presents a varied and interesting table of contents, representing respectively the views of Liberalism, of Evangelical Christendom, and of Roman Catholicism. The *London Quarterly* has a genial and appreciative sketch of Leech; the *British Quarterly* a severe criticism on the spirit and tendency of the French Emperor's work on Caesar; and the *Dublin* a Memorial article on Cardinal Wiseman (one of the founders of the Review), and some papers on Irish history, politics, and literature.

SHORT NOTICES.

The Last Illness of his Eminence Cardinal Wiseman. By John Morris, Canon Penitentiary of Westminster. (Burns, Lambert, & Oates.)—Mr. Morris was in attendance on the late Roman Catholic Archbishop of Westminster during the last days of his illness, and was therefore enabled to observe the several incidents of the closing scene. Conceiving that they give a striking example of virtue to the world, he desires to place a narrative of the sad and impressive event within reach of a larger number of persons than he can address by word of mouth; and accordingly he publishes this little book of sixty-two pages. There is something so solemn and touching in death that it levels all distinctions of creed, and takes us out of the arena of disputation into the wide, pure air of universal brotherhood and pity. That we are Protestants, while Cardinal Wiseman was one of the most energetic of Papists, is therefore no bar to our reading Mr. Morris's relation with respectful sympathy. The Cardinal had a long and most painful illness, in the course of which it was found necessary to perform one or two operations of a trying character; and he appears to have borne himself with patience and resignation. As in such narratives generally, we find some points which all must acknowledge as pathetic; but fewer than we should have expected, the simple solemnity of death being so frequently overlaid by ceremonial observances. We are content that it should be imputed by Roman Catholics to our Protestant prejudices; but to our minds there is a fussy paltriness about this robing of the poor dying mortal, this sprinkling of holy water, burning of candles, parading of crucifixes, administering of unction, and continual profession of faith, which takes off from the moral dignity of a reasonable soul calmly and unostentatiously awaiting the summons of its Creator to depart. One day, the Cardinal said to his nurse, "They tell me I am going home. Is it not nice?" "For you," she answered, "but not for us." "Oh, it is so nice!" rejoined the Cardinal. "It is like going home for the holidays after working hard at school." This feminine, or rather childish, way of alluding to the greatest of mysteries, is of a piece with the feeling which takes delight in candles and crucifixes; and, as we have said, it detracts greatly from the impressiveness of the story. The most unpleasant thing in the book, however, is the fact that the Cardinal, on the 12th of January, a little more than a month before his death, wrote a letter to Father Charles Bowden, highly commending him for his conduct in connection with the discreditable M'Dermott case. The letter is here printed, and, for the sake of the Cardinal, we are sorry to have seen it.

An Editor of the Line; or, Wayside Musings and Reminiscences. By Edward Miall. (Arthur Miall.)—Mr. Edward Miall is well-known as the editor of the *Nonconformist* newspaper, and as a controversial writer of industry and ability on questions connected with religion. He has not, we believe, hitherto appeared as an essay-writer on literary or general topics; but, having recently had a little more leisure than he was formerly accustomed to, he devoted it to the composition of a few rambling discourses on subjects of a miscellaneous character. These he has now printed in a small volume, not without some misgiving as to his ability to fulfil the new part which he has here assumed. He compares his feelings to those of the clergyman or public orator who, though accustomed to address thousands without anxiety, trembles at the thought of having to sing before half-a-dozen persons; or to those of the sailor who can face a storm at sea with perfect equanimity, but passes a sleepless night before mounting a horse. We cannot but think, however, that Mr. Miall is unduly nervous. His volume is very agreeable. It treats of a great variety of subjects, though most of them have some reference to out-door exercise; for one of Mr. Miall's objects in writing these essays is to impress on his readers the necessity of habitual walking, and its

superiority to every other form of physical development. A cheerful, friendly tone pervades Mr. Miall's little book, and though it does not rise above an average level, it is full of pleasant reading, which will do no one any harm.

The Prophet of Nazareth; or, a Critical Inquiry into the Prophetic, Intellectual, and Moral Character of Jesus Christ. By Evan Powell Meredith. (Farrah.)—This is a "Prize Essay," written in consequence of a premium offered by Mr. George Baillie, of Glasgow, as long ago as January, 1857, for a treatise answering the twofold question, "Did Christ predict the Last Day of Judgment and Destruction of the World as events inevitable during the then existent generation of men? and, if so, what inferences, Theistical or the reverse, are fairly deducible from the non-fulfilment of the prophecy, so dreaded by them, it having been, as alleged, extensively and impressively inculcated by his Apostles as promotive of Christianity in its earliest ages?" The essay was to include a fair and impartial review of both sides of the controversy; and the man who best fulfilled all the conditions appears to have been Mr. Evan Powell Meredith, who, judging by his name, and by the fact of his work being printed by himself at Monmouth, must be of Cambrian-British stock. Mr. Meredith gives us to understand that he was originally a Christian, but is now a Deist; and, though he certainly states both sides of the case, he gives by far the greater amount of space to his free-thinking conclusions. The prize offered by thrifty Mr. Baillie was only £10—rather poor pay for 612 octavo pages of very small type; but we suppose that controversy is its own reward, and that Mr. Meredith finds a certain satisfaction in his own achievement.

Handbook of the Steam Engine. By John Bourne, C.E. (Longmans.)—This "handbook"—which, though small as to the size of the page, is extremely thick, and contains a large amount of matter—was mainly designed as a key to the author's "Catechism of the Steam Engine," published some years ago; but, in the course of being carried into execution, the plan was somewhat enlarged, so as to supply points of information not contained in the Catechism; and it now includes, according to Mr. Bourne, "all the rules required for the right construction and management of engines of every class, with the easy arithmetical solution of those rules." On so technical a subject, we must take for granted Mr. Bourne's account of his own work, handing it over for more particular examination to such of our readers as are learned in these matters. The volume is illustrated by sixty-seven woodcuts and numerous tables and examples, and seems to be a very inclusive treatise on a highly important branch of engineering.

First Practical Lines in Geometrical Drawing. By J. F. H. De Rheins, F.C.S., &c. (Williams and Norgate.)—Here is another work of a technical character, which we can simply introduce to the reader. It contains numerous examples and problems in practical geometry, descriptive geometry, the use of mathematical instruments, the construction of scales, orthographic and horizontal projections, the theory of shadows, isometrical drawing, and perspective; is founded on questions propounded at the different military and other competitive examinations; and is illustrated by upwards of three hundred diagrams.—We may mention in connection with this work the *Elementary Drawing Copy Books*, for the use of children from four years old and upwards, published in eightpenny parts by Messrs. Chapman & Hall, and which seem well-adapted to their purpose.

We have received Vol. IV. of the *Victoria Magazine* (Emily Faithfull);—cheap editions of Mr. John Stuart Mill's essays *On Liberty* and *On Representative Government* (Longmans);—a new edition, in one volume, of Mr. Charles Reade's *Hard Cash* (Sampson Low & Co.);—a fourth edition of *The Inspiration of Holy Scripture*, by William Lee, D.D., Archdeacon of Dublin (Hodges & Smith, Dublin);—a second edition of Captain Mayne Reid's little treatise on *Croquet* (Houlston & Wright);—and the *Ophthalmic Review* for April (Hardwicke).

LITERARY GOSSIP.

ON Tuesday, the drawings and pencil-scrapes of poor John Leech will be sold to the highest bidders at Messrs. CHRISTIE & MANSON's. They are now on view, and some hundreds of people are visiting the neighbourhood of St. James's to see them. The Catalogue sets forth that there are several thousand examples, including original sketches for the political cartoons and pictures of life and character which have appeared during the last twenty years in *Punch*; also illustrations for the Comic histories, the "Ingoldsby Legends," "Mr. Jorrocks Hunt," "Ask Mamma," and various sporting novels. There are also some drawings in water colours and a few pictures in oil, some of which were exhibited at the Egyptian Hall, including two or three which have never been exhibited. These remains of Leech's industry are generally mere sketches, rapidly executed on any piece of paper which chance threw in the artist's way. Hence all kinds and tints of paper may be seen in the collection. These rough draughts—first impressions—are disappointing when compared with the more finished designs which were drawn on the wood. As mementos of the artist, however, they will probably realize large prices, and for the sake of his family we trust they may. The sketches are not loose in portfolios, as we are accustomed to see them on such occasions. They have all been carefully mounted and framed, except a few in albums, and by these means their importance has been considerably increased. The Catalogue—full of printers' errors, we are sorry to say—has been prepared by a friend, and many well-known *Punch* titles are included in the descriptions. No. 599 will probably attract attention. It represents "Punch's Ball," and is the original drawing, containing the caricature-portraits of the editor, Mark Lemon; of Douglas Jerrold, Thackeray, A'Beckett, Leech himself, Tom Taylor, Perceval Leigh, H. Mayhew, Doyle, and other contributors to *Punch*. Mr. *Punch* leads off the ball with Britannia. An introductory note, speaking of these drawings, says: "They are intensely interesting, not merely as the originals of the pictures that have delighted millions, and have become the property of the world, but as showing the mode in which John Leech worked and thought out his exqui-

site truthful conceptions, and as proof that he was as mindful of the pictorial as of the satiric requisitions of the art of which he was so great a master. They also show his brilliant and incessant advance, and the mode in which he attained his singular facility and unequalled grace."

It is understood that the *Fine Arts Quarterly Review* will not be issued any more. As a commercial speculation it has not proved fortunate, and as a literary venture it has been pronounced a failure, even by friends interested in its success.

The decease of Herr Narbut, the eminent Polish historian, is announced. At the time of his death he was eighty-two years of age.

A new story by Miss Martineau, with the title of "A Family History," will shortly appear in *Once a Week*.

It is said that M. Thiers has informed some literary friends that it is his intention to write a History of the Restoration, 1814 to 1830. For many years past he has been making collections for such a work, and next year, it is thought, a portion may be published.

Several men of eminence, authors and professors, and some of the principal publishers of the United States, conceived that the recent visit of Professor Goldwin Smith afforded them a good opportunity for consigning to England such a collection of American books as would fittingly represent the scholarship and literary genius of the New World. An impression obtains in the United States that we are very ignorant here upon many American matters, and it was thought that a collection of standard American books, and works illustrative of American scholarship and genius, placed in Oxford, or some other seat of English learning, would serve the purpose of diffusing authentic information "and liberal views, especially among the rising generation of scholars in England, where there is a notable dearth of such means of knowledge." Professor Smith was requested to take charge of this library, and Mr. Henry Tuckerman was deputed to confer with him. The following is the Professor's reply to Mr. Tuckerman's note:—

"New York, Dec. 8, 1864.

"Dear Sir,—My most hearty thanks are due to you, and to all those who have united with you, in this act of courtesy and kindness towards your English guest. No gift could be more welcome to one so deeply interested as I am in all that relates to American history, intellect, and character. I shall regard these books partly as a trust placed, by you and your friends, in my keeping; on my shelves they will be open to all who may wish to consult them; and I shall be most happy if they are the means, in my hands, of diffusing a better knowledge of America than, to the misfortune of both nations, but especially of mine, has hitherto been possessed by most English critics of American affairs. My visit to America is now drawing to a close; and this pleasant gift crowns three of the happiest and most instructive months of my life. I shall bear with me to England the memory of great enjoyment, a most grateful sense of the overflowing kindness which has everywhere surrounded me, and a desire, stronger, if possible, than ever, to see a friendship reign between the beloved land of my birth and the almost equally beloved land which I am now leaving.—I am, Dear Sir, very truly yours,

"GOLDWIN SMITH."

Among the authors who contributed copies of their works were Bancroft, Everett, Bryant, Dr. Holmes, Longfellow, Whittier, Bayard Taylor, Lieber, Carey, Schoolecraft, and other names almost as well known here as across the Atlantic. The collection numbers not far short of one thousand volumes.

The statement that Madame George Sand was about to build a fine villa on the borders of the Bois de Boulogne is now contradicted. She has written to the Paris papers, denying the assertion.

The *Publishers' Circular* very naturally notices Mr. Charles Knight's announcement of publishing a small volume about the old London bibliopoles. It says:—"Readers of the early numbers of *Household Words* will remember the beautiful series of biographical papers contributed to that journal by Mr. Charles Knight under the title of 'Shadows.' A little volume which the same author is now preparing, under the title of 'Shadows of the Booksellers,' will, we presume, consist of sketches of a similar character. The subjects are taken from the Lives of the Tonsons, Linton, Dodsley, Cave, Woodfall, and other celebrated publishers of bygone times. John Dunton's 'Life and Errors' will not, we presume, be omitted, and Mr. Knight is too good a literary artist not to avail himself of a little 'Shade' in his tableau from the history of Edmund Curll."

During the week, Mr. Trollope's "History of Florence," a new three-volume novel by Mr. Kingsley, "The Missionary Geography," and "A Winter in Algeria in 1863-4" have been subscribed. The numbers taken by the trade will not be considered very satisfactory by the publishers. Business in Paternoster-row, however, is dull.

A subscription having been set on foot to relieve the aged mother of the late Jules Gerard, it has met with so much success that the poor old lady has been enabled to quit the house of charity at Nice, and rent a small home of her own. Some 11,000f. have been collected for the grandmother and grandchildren.

Continuing from last week our list of Mr. MURRAY's announcements of new books, we have, "Peking and the Pekingeses, during the First Year of the British Embassy at Pekin," by Dr. Rennie, author of "The British Army in China and Japan," 2 vols., 8vo.; "Memoirs Illustrative of the Art of Glass Painting," by the late Charles Winston, with illustrations, 8vo.; "St. Paul's Epistles to the Corinthians, with Critical Notes and Dissertations," by Dr. Stanley, Dean of Westminster; "The History and Antiquities of Media, Babylonia, and Persia," being the 3rd and 4th vols. of the "Five Ancient Monarchies of the East," by the Rev. George Rawlinson, M.A., with illustrations, 2 vols., 8vo.; "Chinese Miscellanies," by Sir John Davis, Bart., author of "Sketches of China;" the long-announced new edition of the "Works of Alexander Pope," with a new life, introduction, and notes, by the Rev. Whitwell Elwin; Buttman's "Catalogue of Irregular Greek Verbs, with all the Tenses Extant," their formation, meaning, and usage, accompanied by an Index,"

translated, with notes, by the Rev. J. R. Fishlake, 3rd edition, revised by the Rev. E. Venables; "The Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem, being the Substance of Two Lectures, delivered at the Royal Institution, Feb., 1862, and March, 1865," by James Ferguson, F.R.S., with woodcuts; "The Gentleman's House, or How to Plan English Residences, from the Parsonage to the Palace, with Tables of accommodation and cost, and a series of selected plans," by Robert Kerr, architect, new and revised edition; "Dog-Breaking," a new edition of Major-General Hutchinson's famous book, revised and enlarged, with additional illustrations, by F. W. Keyl; "Handbook for Russia," including Finland, Poland, St. Petersburg, and Moscow, new edition; a French translation of Mr. Smiles's "Self-Help," by Alfred Talandier; "Handbook for Turkey," &c., new edition; "Handbook for Westmoreland and Cumberland," post 8vo.; more "Transactions of the Ethnological Society;" "Life, Journals, and Letters of Jonathan Swift," introductory to a new edition of his works, by John Foster; "Specimens of the Brick and Terra-cotta Buildings of North Italy, from the twelfth to the fifteenth centuries, as examples for imitation in other countries," by Lewis Gruner; the "New Biographia Britannica," "Lives of the Worthies of Great Britain and Ireland," by various writers, medium 8vo., uniform with Dr. William Smith's "Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography," &c.; and "The Student's Blackstone," a systematic abridgment of Sir W. Blackstone's Commentaries, adapted to the present state of the law, by Robert Malcom Kerr, LL.D.

Mr. DOUGLAS, of the firm of EDMONSTON & DOUGLAS, of Edinburgh, has subscribed to the London trade during the week, "Mystifications," by Clementina Stirling Grahame, edited by Dr. John Brown; "Life in Normandy," sketches of French fishing, farming, cooking, &c.; "Popular Genealogists, or the Art of Pedigree Making;" and "Odds and Ends, No. 4—The Enterkin," by Dr. John Brown.

Messrs. A. & C. BLACK's list of publications in the press includes the first part of "A System of Modern History" (to be completed in three other parts), by S. H. Reynolds; and "The Fatherhood of God," being the first course of the Coningham Lectures, delivered before the New College, Edinburgh, by R. S. Candlish, D.D.

The new novel of George Sand, "La Confession d'une Jeune Fille," which met with so great a success in the *Révue des Deux Mondes*, and which has been so impatiently expected in a collected form, has just come out at the house of MICHEL LÉVY FRÈRES.

"Les Femmes de Jules César, sa Vie Privée et ses Mœurs," is the title of another of the numerous pamphlets to which the Emperor's work has given rise. It is written by Benjamin Gastineau, and published by DENTU.

M. Calmon, late Deputy in the French Chamber, has published a work of a financial and parliamentary nature, called "William Pitt." It is said to contain some correct and instructive information.

Amongst the new publications of DIDIÈRE & CO., we notice the following works likely to interest the philosophical public:—"Théodicée, Études sur Dieu, la Création, &c.," by M. Amedée de Margerie; "Immortalité," by M. Baguenault de Puchesse; "La Philosophie de Saint Augustin," by M. Nourisson; and "La Nature Humaine," by the same author.

HACHETTE & CO. announce the "Introduction Générale" to the History of France, about to be published by the eminent writer M. Duruy.

A new Italian historical novel has just appeared in Turin. It is written by Count Belgioso, and is founded on an incident in the history of Milan. It is entitled "Repubblicani e Sforzeschi."

LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS FOR THE WEEK.

Aimard (G.), *Stoneheart*. Fcap., 2s.
 Bartlett (W. A.), *History and Antiquities of Wimbledon*. Cr. 8vo., 6s. 6d.
 Bennett (J. H.), *Principles and Practice of Medicine*. 4th edit. 8vo., 30s.
 Black's General Atlas of the World. New edit. Folio, £3.
 — *Picturesque Tourist of Scotland*. New edit. Fcap. 8s. 6d.
 — *Guide to the Channel Islands*. Fcap. 5s.
 — *Dublin*. New edit. Fcap. 1s. 6d.
 Christian Companionship for Retired Hours. Fcap. 3s. 6d.
 Chambers' Encyclopaedia. Vol. VII. Royal 8vo., 9s.
 Cobbold (R. C.), *Freston Tower*. New edit. Fcap. 3s. 6d.
 Cochrane (A. B.), *Historic Pictures*. 2 vols. Post 8vo., 21s.
 Collier (J. F.), *The Naval Discipline Act*. Fcap. 1s. 6d.
 Cust (Sir E.), *Lives of the Warriors of the Thirty Years' War*. 2 vols. Cr. 8vo., 16s.
 Edwards (F.), *On Letters Patent for Inventions*. 8vo., 5s.
 Fairbairn (W.), *On Iron*. New edit. 8vo., 9s.
 Fife (Sir J.), *The Turkish Bath*. Cr. 8vo., 5s.
 Haldane (V.), *Our Charlie*. Cr. 8vo., 10s. 6d.
 Hawley (J. H.), *First Course of English Composition*. Fcap. 1s. 6d.
 Hill (Mrs.), *Memoir of, by Rev. S. Davies*. Cr. 8vo., 2s.
 Jerrold (W. B.), *The Disgrace to the Family*. New edit. Fcap., 2s.
 Kingsley (H.), *The Hillyards and the Burtons*. 3 vols. Cr. 8vo., £1. 11s. 6d.
 Lawrence (J. Z.), *The Optical Defects of the Eye*. 8vo., 6s.
 Macadam (S.), *Practical Chemistry*. Fcap., 2s. 6d.
 Macaulay (Lord), *Biographies*. New edit. Fcap. 2s. 6d.
 Mackay (G. E.), *Songs of Love and Death*. Fcap., 5s.
 Macrae (D.), *Dunvarlich*. Fcap., 2s. 6d.
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